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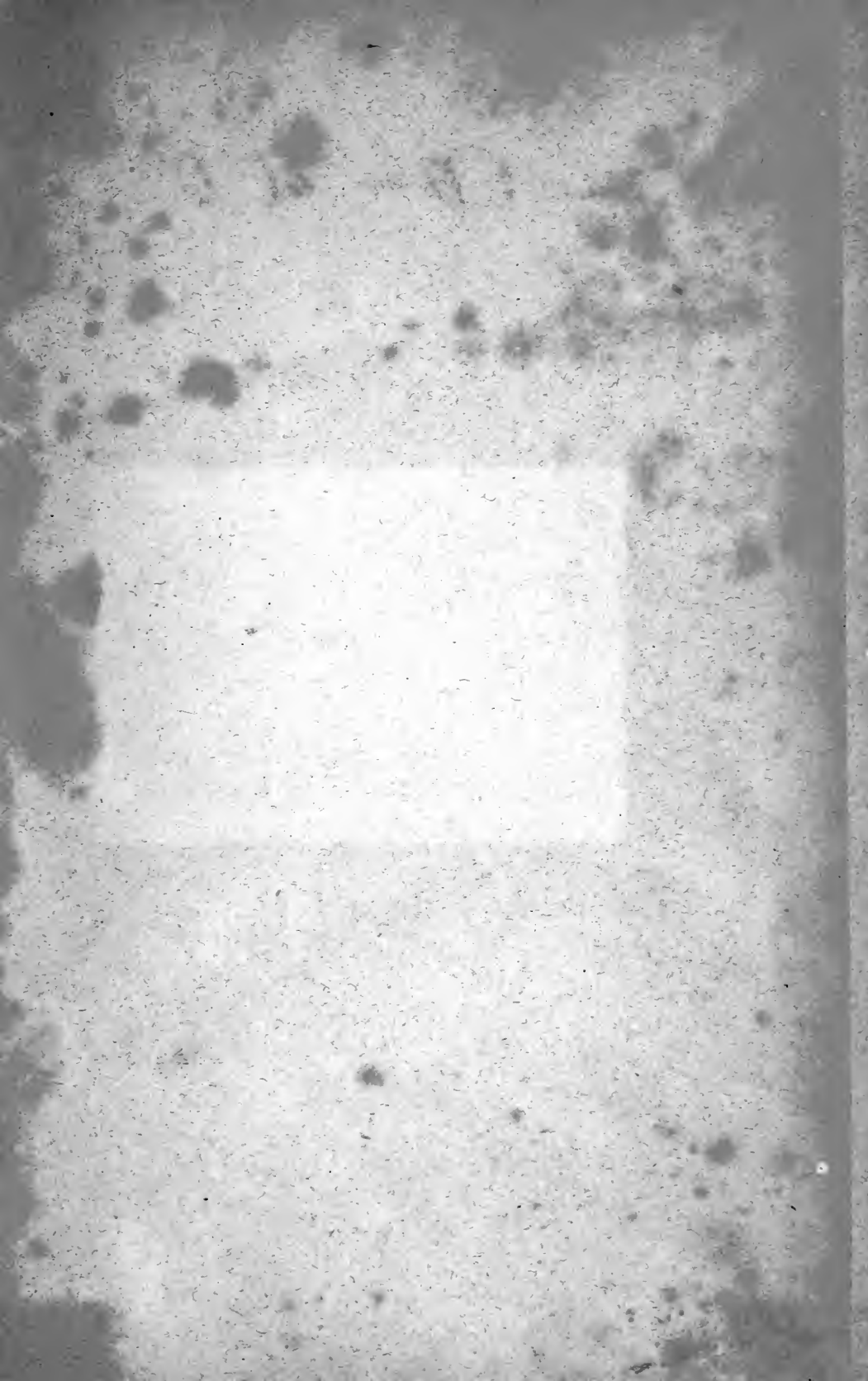
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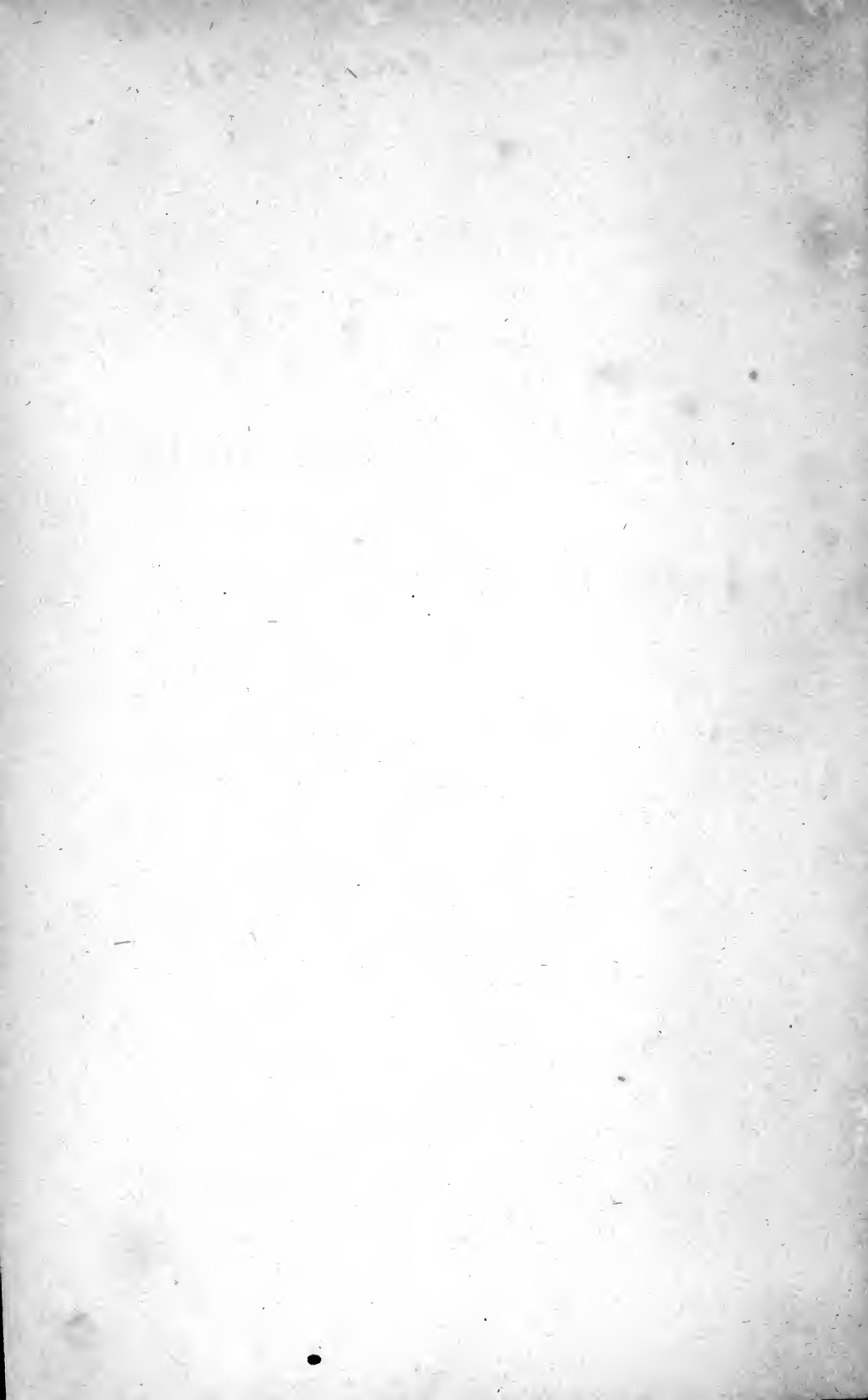
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A

GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE;

FOR THE USE OF

COMMON SCHOOLS, ACADEMIES AND SEMINARIES.

BY

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INTRODUCTION.

THE author presents to the public the following treatise as exhibiting in his view the correct principles of English grammar, and the proper method of teaching them. There are several considerations which have induced him to attempt a work necessarily attended with so many difficulties, and requiring so much labor and careful investigation, to render it in any degree useful to the cause of education. Having devoted several years to the business of teaching, he has had a favorable opportunity to examine with care most of the grammars now in use, and to know their excellencies and defects so far as he is able to judge correctly with respect to them. The views he has entertained upon the subject of grammar, are in some respects essentially different from those exhibited in any treatise with which the author is acquainted. In teaching this science, he has, therefore, been obliged to adopt text-books which, in his opinion, contained many erroneous principles, tending in many cases to mislead and perplex the young student, instead of making his path clear and easy. But the student is not the only sufferer. By such text-books the teacher is subjected to a serious inconvenience. He is compelled to teach what he believes to be false, or disprove what is inculcated in the text book, and communicate his own views either in verbal or written lectures.

The author has preferred the latter course ; and the approbation which his views and mode of teaching have met, both on the part of his pupils and the visitors of the Seminary with which he is connected ; and the repeated requests that

he should make them public, were no slight considerations in leading him to attempt a task so laborious and difficult. In the execution of this work, the author has neither felt nor displayed a spirit of controversy or denunciation. He has aimed to explain the principles of grammar clearly and concisely, without stopping to controvert the opinions of others any farther than a clear exhibition of his own views required. Indeed he does not wish to give currency to his own work by unjust strictures upon those of others. He expects it will stand by its own merits if at all, and not by any adventitious circumstances that he can throw around it.

A partial exhibition of the mode in which this treatise is executed, will tend to illustrate more clearly the reasons which have led to its publication.

The subject-matter of this work is made to accord, as far as its utility will allow, with that which is adopted in treatises upon the same subject now in use. The author has not labored to make it singular, either in respect to manner or matter, merely for the sake of singularity.

But, although the general features of the plan are the same as those of other grammars, yet in the detail it is quite different. The general principles of the work are numbered by sections; and under each section, remarks are introduced, if necessary, which also are numbered in the order in which they follow their respective sections. This is done for the purpose of referring the student to the principles which apply to each given exercise. At the close of the discussion of each part of speech, examples are introduced to be parsed etymologically. In order to render the exercises simple and adapt them to the capacity of the young student, the rules of syntax are not introduced into the etymological exercises that precede them. In syntax, etymological and syntactical exercises are united. Under each rule there are exercises of false syntax, which the student should be required to correct orally according to the rule and remarks under which they are writ-

ten. Following the syntax, a variety of extracts of prose and poetry are introduced for the student to parse and analyze; and for the purpose of assisting him, references are written at the bottom of each page, directing him to those principles of grammar which are applicable to the exercises written above them. These exercises are so extensive and furnish such a variety of examples, that all the principles of grammar will be repeatedly called into requisition; and thus the student will be furnished with ample means for acquiring an extensive and thorough knowledge of grammar, without being subjected to the inconvenience of using a distinct book for the purpose of analysis and parsing.

The writer has, in this treatise, introduced some alterations in the classification of the parts of speech. To those words which are usually denominated *demonstrative*, *distributive* and *indefinite* adjective pronouns, the term pronoun is not applied when they belong to nouns expressed or understood. *That* is usually called a demonstrative adjective pronoun, when it limits the meaning of a noun. But why call it a pronoun? It surely does not supply the place of a noun. It is also sometimes used as a conjunction; and why can we not, with the same propriety, apply the term pronoun when used as such, and call it a pronominal conjunction? When the words above named represent nouns, the term pronoun should be applied, but in no other case. Such a course should be pursued in order to classify them consistently with the definition given to the pronoun.

The potential mode is not adopted in this treatise, as the author can see no reason for its use. Those verbs that are usually parsed as being in this mode can, with perfect propriety, come under the indicative. The indicative mode affirms or denies something or asks a question. Now what verb, that is usually parsed as being in the potential mode, may not be arranged under the indicative? Do not the propositions, *I may walk*, *I might walk*, *I could walk*, affirm that I have

power or ability to walk? The author does not see why they are not as really affirmations as *I walk, I walked*, etc. True there is a difference in what is affirmed by the two kinds of propositions; a possible action being affirmed by the former, and a real action, by the latter. But the difference in what is affirmed would be a dangerous principle to adopt in the formation of modes. If such a principle be admitted, there would be as many modes as there are verbs; for very few verbs mean precisely the same thing. The course here adopted relieves the grammar from some inconsistencies which can easily be made obvious. According to most grammars, the verb, *might love*, is parsed as being in the potential mode and imperfect tense. But this proposition does not denote a past action or state, which is uniformly the import of the imperfect tense. This verb usually denotes a present possible action or state. Here then is a palpable inconsistency; a verb which is in the present tense denoting a present possible action, is arranged under the imperfect, and parsed as a verb that denotes an action indefinitely past and finished. It would be as absurd to say that two and two make five, as that the proposition, *I might love*, denotes a past action.

The conjunctions are divided into six classes, instead of two which is the usual division, and which, in the opinion of the writer, is in many cases incorrect. As an example, take the conjunction *that*, which is sometimes parsed as a copulative conjunction and which is defined as connecting words or sentences by expressing addition, supposition or cause. "I have ever toiled hard that I might gain a subsistence." Now what does *that* denote in this example? Does it denote addition, supposition or cause? The author cannot see that it expresses either. If it denotes neither of them, the common definitions of copulative conjunctions are defective. *That* in the above example denotes the object or result of the preceding proposition, and therefore it should be denominated a

final conjunction. The reader is referred to the article upon conjunctions for further information upon the subject now considered.

A system of analysis is introduced into this work, which is not contained in any English grammar, with which the author is acquainted, except one, and but partially in that. According to this analysis, propositions and compound sentences are analyzed *grammatically* and *logically*. This system of analysis, the author regards as one of the most valuable parts of the grammar. Indeed, it is his firm conviction, that it will assist the student more in ascertaining the relation and force of the words in a proposition, than the common method of parsing. The unusual advantages which this system will afford, were there no others contained in this work, are in his view amply sufficient to warrant its publication.

To the syntax special attention has been given. It has been a prominent object in the composition of the syntax, as well as in other parts of this grammar, to introduce precision in the definition of rules and remarks. Those rules and remarks which are clearly defined in other grammars, are in many cases introduced without any modification, while others are newly defined and corrected. The whole the author has labored to make concise and perspicuous.

The materials of this grammar have been derived from various sources. In the composition of this work, the author had before him most of the English grammars that have acquired any valuable reputation. He has consulted them carefully and adopted, both as to manner and matter, the principles contained in them, so far as they would contribute to the utility of this treatise. The works from which the most assistance has been derived, are the grammars of Murray, Webster, and Andrews and Stoddard. There are others from which some assistance has been derived, but which it is not necessary to specify particularly. Many of the definitions contained in the very excellent Latin grammar of Andrews and Stoddard,

are introduced into this treatise without alteration. This has been done not only because an attempt to improve them promised no benefit, but for the convenience of those who may pursue a course of classical study. From this work and that of De Sacy, many principles of the analysis have been collected, and arranged and adapted to the genius of the English language.

But, while the author thus cheerfully acknowledges his obligations to others, he does not admit that he is a mere copyist. Many principles are displayed in this treatise, which he has seen in no other grammar; and the manner and matter derived from other sources, have been so modified as to give the work a consistency with itself and the impress of the author's own mind.

It is not the province of the grammarian to give law to language, but to develope and teach the principles that accord with the best usage. His instructions should always accord with reputable and general use, or the practice of the best speakers and writers. Of this principle the author is well aware, and has endeavored to be governed by it in the execution of this work.

Those passages which are taken without alteration, are generally marked with quotations or by subscribing the name of the author of the work from which they are taken.

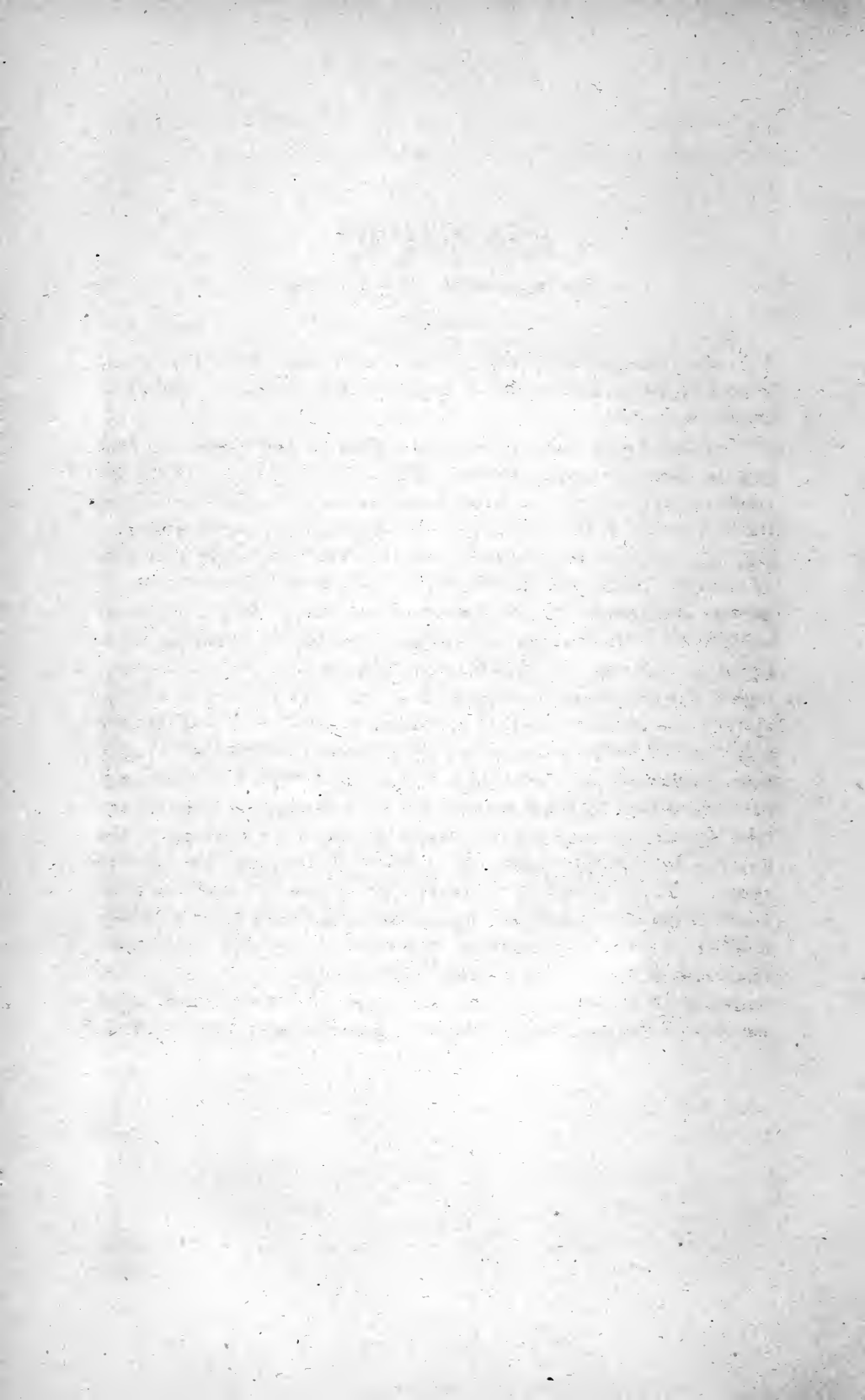
In commending this work to the patronage of the public, the author does not pretend to be indifferent as to its usefulness and success. It would be presumption to claim for it absolute perfection, but he hopes it will bear the examination of an impartial and dispassionate mind. Should it stand the test of such an examination, should it receive the approbation of an enlightened public and advance the cause of education, he will be amply compensated for his labor, and his highest expectations with regard to it will be fully realised.

DIRECTIONS

TO TEACHERS AND PUPILS.

As the arrangement of this grammar is in some respects peculiar, it may be expedient to give a few directions as to the manner it should be studied.

There are two courses of exercises adopted, one called the first and the other the second course. The scholar in commencing the study of grammar, should direct his attention to the sections only of the first course of the exercises. He should begin to parse etymologically, as soon as he has learned the definitions of the first part of speech. In the first course of exercises, he will see the order of parsing illustrated, and a reference at the close of each question is made to the section which will enable the scholar to answer it intelligently. After he has gone through with the first course of etymological and syntactical parsing, he may then take the second course, and observe the references, as in the first course. It is best that the pupil should thoroughly commit the principles referred to in every case, so that he may have them at command when he enters upon exercises where there are no references. After having mastered the false syntax, he may perhaps profitably direct his attention to the analysis in connection with the exercises that succeed the rules of syntax. Pupils should be required, in every case, to apply the principles of grammar while parsing, till they have made them perfectly familiar. It is only by pursuing such a course, that they will become interested in this science, obtain a knowledge of the genius and power of their own language, and acquire that discipline of mind which a correct mode of studying it, is pre-eminently fitted to afford.



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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

§ 1. ENGLISH GRAMMAR teaches the principles of the English language, and the proper manner of writing and speaking it.

§ 2. It is divided into four parts ; Orthography, Etymology, Syntax and Prosody.

REMARK 1. The principles of grammar are usually divided into two classes, the particular and universal. The particular principles are such as are appropriate to a particular language, and the universal, such as are common to all languages.

REM. 2. The standard of grammatical accuracy is the present reputable and general use, or the established practice of the best speakers and writers.

REM. 3. Principle in grammar is a peculiar construction of the language, sanctioned by good use.

REM. 4. A definition in grammar, consists in describing a principle in a definite form.

REM. 5. "A rule in grammar describes the peculiar construction, or circumstantial relation of words which custom has established for our observance."

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

§ 3. Orthography teaches the nature and power of letters and the proper mode of forming them into syllables and words.

REMARK. Articulate sounds are the elements of language, which are represented by letters or characters. The English Alphabet has twenty-six letters that represent sounds: *A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.*

DIVISION OF LETTERS.

§ 4. Letters are divided into vowels and consonants.

A vowel is a letter that can be perfectly sounded alone, The sound is simple, and it is begun and continued at pleasure with the same position of the organs.

The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u,* and *w* and *y* in all situations except when they begin a word or syllable.

When placed at the beginning of words they are consonants.

A consonant is a letter which cannot be sounded without the help of a vowel.

Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels. Mutes cannot be sounded at all alone. They are *b, p, t, d, k,* and *c* and *g* hard.

The semi-vowels can be partially sounded alone. Such are *f, l, m, n, r, v, s, z, x,* and *c* and *g* soft.

The letters *l, m, n* and *r* are called liquids, because they readily unite with other consonants.

The letters *b, f, m, p* and *v,* are called labials, because they are articulated by the lips.

The letters *c, g, q* and *j,* are called palatals, because they are articulated by the tongue.

The letters *m* and *n* are called nasals, because they are articulated through the nose.

The letters *d, t, z, c* and *s* are called aspirates, because they are articulated mostly by the breath.

The letters *h, f, v,* and hard *g* and *c* are called gutturals, because they are articulated mostly by the throat.

The letter *j* represents the sounds of *d* and *g* soft.

The letter *x* represents the sounds of *k* and *s*; except when it begins a word; as, *Xerxes*.

The letter *z* represents the sounds of *d* and *s*.

REMARKS ON THE SOUNDS OF LETTERS.

A

A has four sounds.

1. The long English sound; as in *fane, cane, fate.*
2. The short Italian sound of *à*; as in *cat, hat.*
3. The long Italian sound of *ä*; as in *harm, farm.*
4. The broad German sound of *â*; as in *hall, wall.*

B

B has the same sound in all its positions. It is sometimes silent; as in *debt, subtle.*

In some cases, it is not entirely silent, but protracts the syllable; as *climb*, *tomb*.

C

C has two sounds. Before *a*, *o*, *u*, *l*, *r* and *t*, it has a hard sound like *k*; as in *code*, *can*, *cottage*, etc. and it has the same sound when it ends a syllable; as in *victim*, *flaccid*. Before *e*, *i*, and *y*, it is always soft; as in *civil*, *decency*. C is silent in *czar*, *vituals*, etc. C in a few words takes a flat sound like that of *z*; as in *sacrifice*, *discern*. C before *ea*, *ia*, *ie*, *io*, or *eu*, when the accent precedes, sounds like *sh*; as in *ocean*, *special*, *species*, *gracious*, *cetaceous*. Ch is generally sounded like *tch*; as in *change*, *chance*, *China*, *church*, etc.

In Greek words; as in *chyle*, *chorus*, *ch* is sounded like *k*; also in some proper names from foreign languages, *ch* is sounded like *k*; as in *Baruch*, *Enoch*, etc.

In words of French origin, *ch* is sounded like *sh*; as in *chevalier*, *chicanery*.

Ch coming before a vowel in *arch*, is sounded like *k*; as in *archives*, *archangel*, *Archipelago*, etc. except in *archer*, *arched*, *arch-enemy*, etc.

Ch coming before a consonant has uniformly the sound of *tch*; as in *arch-bishop*, *arch-duke*, etc.

D

D in every position, has the same sound except in *hopped*, *puffed*, *passed*, etc. where it sounds like *t*.

E

E has three different sounds. 1. A long sound; as in *me*, *glebe*, *complete*, etc. 2. A short sound; as in *bed*, *men*, etc. 3. An obscure sound; as in *ebony*, *merry*. At the end of words, *e* is silent except in monosyllables; as *me*, *he*, *she*, or in words of Greek origin; as *catastrophe*, *Penelope*, etc., or in *cre*, *gre*, *tre*, in which it sounds like close *u*, as in *acre*, *meagre*, *centre*. It sometimes softens the preceding consonants; as in *grace*, *face*, *oblige*, *since*, etc. Also the preceding consonant is lengthened by it; as in *man*, *mane*; *can*, *cane*; *pin*, *pine*, etc.

F

F has an uniform sound in every position except in *of*, in which it takes the sound of *v*. But when it is compounded with another word; as in *whereof*, *thereof*, the *f* has its usual sound.

G

G has two sounds; one hard and guttural, the other soft like *j*. Before *e*, *i* and *y*, *g* is soft; as in *genius*, *gesture*, *ginger*, *Egypt*, except in *get*, *gew-gaw*, *finger*, *craggy*, and some others. *G* is always hard at the end of words; as in *bag*, *snug*, *gig*. Before *a*, *o*, *u*, *l* and *r*, it is hard; as in *gave*, *gone*, *gale*, *glory*, *great*. *G* before *n* is silent; as in *gnash*, *sign*, etc. *Gn* at the end of words protracts the preceding vowel; as in *condign*, *malign*, *re-sign*, *impugn*, etc. At the beginning of words *gh* has the sound of *g* hard; as in *ghost*, *ghostly*. In the middle of words, it is silent; as in *night*, *right*, *might*, etc. At the end of words it is often silent; as in *plough*. It often has the sound of *f* at the end of words; as in *cough*, *laugh*, *rough*, *tough*. Sometimes the *g* only is sounded as in *burgh*, *burgher*.

H

H has an articulate sound; as in *hay*, *hat*, *house*. After *r*, it is always silent; as in *rhyme*, *rhetoric*, *rheumatism*. At the beginning of words it is always sounded; except in *heir*, *herb*, *honest*, *honor*, *hour*. A final *h* preceded by a vowel, is always silent; as in *hah!* *ah!* *oh!*

I

I has two sounds—a long sound; as in *fine*, *pine*—short; as in *pin*, *tin*. It often sounds like short *u*; as in *thirty*, *first*—like short *e*; as in *virtue*, *birth*. It has the sound of long *e*; in *machine*, *magazine*, *bombazine*.

J

J has the exact sound of soft *g*; except in *hallelujah*, where it is sounded like *y*.

K

K has the sound of *c* hard. Before *e* and *i*, where *c* is soft, *k* has a hard sound; as in *king*, *kept*, *skirmish*. It is silent before *n*; as in *knight*, *knock*, *knave*. It is never double except in *Habakkuk*. When *c* is used before *k*, it has a double sound, and the vowel is shortened; as in *pickle*.

L

L has a soft liquid sound; as in *blame*, *lose*, *willow*, *barrel*. It is sometimes silent; as in *walk*, *talk*, *half*. *L* is usually doubled at the end of monosyllables; as in *bill*, *fill*, *hall*. Where it is preceded by a diphthong, the *l* only is used; as *hail*, *mail*, *toil*. At

the end of words *le* is sounded like weak *el*, in which the *e* is almost silent; as in *marble, rattle, table*.

M

M has uniformly one sound; as in *man, mountain, mill, mast*. It is never silent. *Comptroller* is pronounced *Controller*.

N

N has two sounds—one pure; as in *man, not, noble*; the other a ringing sound like *ng*; as in *thank*. Final *n*, preceded by *m*, is silent; as in *hymn, autumn, solemn*. “The participial termination *ing* must always have its ringing sound; as in *writing, making, speaking*.”

O

O has a long and a short sound—long; as in *note, mote*—short; as in *lot, not, sot, mock*. Sometimes it has the sound of *u*; as in *son, come, attorney*. Sometimes, also, it takes the sound of *oo*; as in *prove, move*.

P

P has one sound; as in *put, pen, pint*; except in *cupboard*, in which it is sounded like *b*. It is sometimes silent; as in *psalter, psalm, Ptolemy*; also between *m* and *t*; as in *empty, tempt*. *Ph* is generally sounded like *f*; as in *philosophy, Philip*. “It has the sound of *v* in *Stephen, nephew*.” “Both letters are entirely dropped in *phthisic, phthisical*.”

Q

Q is always followed by *u*; as in *quadrant, question, queen*. Sometimes *q* is sounded like *k*; as in *conquer, liquor, picturesque*. In some words of French origin, the *u* is silent; as in *coquette, liquorice*.

R

R has a guttural sound at the beginning of words; as in *run, Rome, rise*; in other positions, a smoother sound; as in *narrow, barber, proud*. At the end of words *re* sounds like *ur*; as in *lustre, massacre*.

S

S has a soft sound like *z*; as in *rose, dismal*. It has a hissing sound; as in *sing, sister, same*. It has also the sound of *zh*; as in *treasure, measure, pleasure, crosier*. At the beginning of words it has always a hissing sound, and at the end it has a soft sound; “except in *this, thus, as, yes, surplus*, etc.; and in

words terminating in *ous* ; as in *tremendous*. Before *ion*, preceded by a vowel, it has the sound of *z* ; as in *intrusion*, *illusion*. When preceded by a consonant, it has the hissing sound of *sh* ; as in *mansion*, *conversion*. Before *e* mute, it has the sound of *z* ; as in *diffuse*, *amuse* ; and before *y* final ; as in *posy* ; also in the words *bosom*, *desire*, *wisdom*, etc. In the words *isle*, *island*, *demesne*, and *viscount*, *s* is silent. *S*, when preceded by the accent and a vowel, and followed by a diphthong or long *u* is sounded like *zh* ; as in *brazier*, *osier*.

T

T is sounded in *tin*, *tame*. Always before *u*, and generally before *eou* when the accent precedes, *t* has the sound of *tch* ; as in *virtue*, *nature*, *righteous*. “*T* before a vowel preceded by the accent, has the sound of *sh* ; as in *propitiation*,” *salvation* ; except in such words as *tierce*, *tiara*, etc. and unless an *s* precedes ; as in *question*, and excepting also derivatives from words ending in *ty* ; as in *weightiest*, *mightiest*. *Th* has two sounds ; the one soft and flat ; as in *thus*, *weather*, *heathen* ; the other hard and sharp ; as in *thin*, *thick*, *breath*. *Th* initial is short, as in *thank*, *thick*, *thunder*, except in *that*, *then*, *thus*, *thither*, and some others. *Th* final of words is also sharp ; as in *death*, *breath*, *mouth* ; except in *with*, *both*, *beneath*, etc. *Th* medial is sharp ; as in *panther*, *orthodox*, *misanthrope* ; except in *worthy*, *farthing*, *brethren*, etc. Between two vowels, *th* is flat in pure English words ; as in *gather*, *neither*, *whether* ; and sharp in words from the learned languages ; as in *athirst*, *method*.

Th in *Thames*, *Thomas*, *thyme*, *phthisic*, *asthma* and their compounds, is pronounced like *t*.

U

U has three sounds.

1. The long sound ; as in *cubic*, *tune*, *tube*.
2. The short ; as in *tub*, *butter*, *justice*.
3. The middle ; as in *artful*, *pulpit*, *pull*. “*U* forming a syllable by itself, is nearly equivalent to *you*, and requires the article *a* and not *an* before it ; as *unite*, *union*.” *U* in *bury*, sounds like short *e* ; in *busy*, like short *i* ; as *berry*, *bizzy*. After *r* and *rh* open *u* ; as *rheubarb*, *rude*, and the diphthong *ue* and *ai* take the sound of *oo* ; as in *rue*, *fruit*, *fruitful*.

V

V always sounds like flattened *f* ; as in *live*, *love*, *voice*, *vulture*.

W

"*W*, when a consonant, has the sound heard in *wine*, *win*, being a sound less vocal than *oo*, and depending more upon the lips."

W before *h* is pronounced as if it succeeded it; as in *when*, *why*, *what*. It is silent before *r*, as in *wrench*, *wrist*, etc.

W is never used as a vowel alone except in some Welsh names in which it sounds like *oo*, as in *cwm*. When *w* is heard in a diphthong, it is sounded like *u*; as in *now*, *brow*, etc.; but it is often silent when joined with *o* at the end of a syllable; as in *know*, *blow*, *stow*, etc.

X

X has three sounds, viz.; a sharp sound like *ks*; as in *ox*—flat, like *gz* in *example*. Initial *x* is sounded like *z* in Greek proper names; as in *Xantippe*, *Xenophon*, *Xanthus*, *Xerxes*.

When *x* ends an unaccented syllable, it has a sharp sound; as in *excellence*, *exit*, and also when it precedes an accented syllable; as in *expose*, *expound*, *expunge*, *expand*.

Y

Y, when a consonant, is heard in *yard*, *youth*, the sound being less vocal than that of feeble *i* or *y*, serving only to modify the following sound with which it quickly unites. *Y*, when a vowel, is sounded like *i*, as:

1. The open long sound as in *cry*, *chyle*, *thyme*, *cycle*.
2. The close short sound; as in *system*.
3. "The feeble (like open *e* feeble); as in *cycloidal*, *mercy*."

In the same positions, *i* and *y* are generally sounded alike, and in the formation of derivatives, the one is often changed for the other; as in *duty*, *duties*; *lie*, *lying*; *city*, *cities*; *tie*, *tying*. No diphthong or triphthongs commence with this letter, it being a consonant before a vowel heard in the same syllable.

Z

Z is always sounded like flat *s*; as in *freeze*, *breeze*.

DIPHTHONGS AND TRIPHTHONGS.

§ 5. A diphthong is the union of two vowels in the same syllable; as *oi* in *soil*; *ou* in *sound*; *ai* in *mail*.

§ 6. A proper diphthong is that in which both vowels are sounded; as *ou* in *round*; *oi* in *soil*.

§ 7. An improper diphthong is that in which only one vowel is sounded ; as *ea* in *eagle* ; *ei* in *forfeit*.

§ 8. A triphthong is the union of three vowels in the same syllable ; as *eau* in *beau* ; *ieu* in *adieu*.

§ 9. A proper triphthong is that in which all the vowels are sounded ; as *uoy* in *buoy*.

§ 10. An improper triphthong is that in which one or two of the vowels are sounded ; as *eau* in *beau*, *ious* in *captious*.

§ 11. DIPHTHONGS.

Diphthongs commencing with a.

The diphthong *aa* has the short sound of *a* ; as in *Balaam*, *Isaac*, *Canaan* ; except in *Baal*, *Gaal*, in which each vowel has a distinct sound.

æ has generally the long sound of *e* ; as in *Cæsar*, *pæan*. Sometimes it has the short sound of *e* ; as in *diæresis*, *cætera*.

In *ay*, meaning *yes*, *a* has its middle or Italian sound, and *y* the sound of open *e*.

ai is generally sounded like long *a* ; as in *main*, *pain*, *rain*. In final syllables unaccented, it often takes the close sound of *i* ; as in *certain*, *curtain*, *mountain*, *villain*. It is sounded like short *e* in *saith*, *again*, *said*, *against*. In *Britain*, like short *u*.

ao in the word *gaol* is pronounced like *ai*, and the *g* like *j*. Now it is usually written *jail*. In the adjective *extraordinary* and its derivatives, the *a* is silent according to Webster.

aw has always the broad sound of *a* in *hall*.

ay like *ai* has the sound of open *a* ; as in *dismay*, *may*, *nay* ; in *says*, it has the sound of short *e*.

Diphthongs commencing with e.

Ei and *ey* are usually sounded like long *a* in *fate* ; as *veil*, *reign*, *neighbor*, *survey*, *purvey*.

Ei is sounded like *e* long ; as in *deceit*, *receipt*, *neither*, *either* ; of long *i* in *height*, *sleight*, *Oneida* ; and of short *i* in unaccented syllables ; as in *foreign*, *sovereign*.

Ey is sounded like long *a* ; as in *convey*, *survey*, *prey* ; in accented syllables like long *e* ; as in *medley*, *money*, *valley*, *alley*.

Ea is sounded like *e* in *me* ; as in *creature*, *bearer* ; like short *e* in *weather*, *dead*, *meadow* ; like long Italian *a* ; as in *heart* ; like short *e* in *pageant*.

Ee has the long sound; as in *meek, need, sweet*. The contractions *ne'er* and *e'er*, are pronounced as if spelled *nāyūr, ayūr*."

Eo is sounded like long *e* in *people*; like *e* short in *leopard*; like long *o* in *yeomanry*; like short *o* in *George*, and like short *u* in *dungeon*.

Eu and *ew* are sounded like *u* in *rude*; as in *knew, grew, few, new, deuce, feud*; and *ew* is sometimes sounded like *oo*; as in *brew*; like *o* long in *sew, strew, shew*.

Diphthongs commencing with i.

Ia is sounded like *ya* in *filial*; like short *i* in *marriage, carriage*.

Ie is sounded like long *i* in *die, lie*; like long *e* in *relief, grief, thief*; like short *e* in *friend* and its compounds.

Io when the *i* is accented, forms a separate syllable; as *violence, violet*. The terminations *tion, cion, and sion* are usually pronounced *shun*; *cious* and *tious, shus*; *ion* in *minion, pinion*, is pronounced *yun*; and when *s* or *x* precedes, *tion* is pronounced, *chun*; as in *question, mixtion*.

Diphthongs commencing with o.

Oa pronounced like long *o* in *coal, boat, load, road, goad*; like broad *a* in *goat, broad, abroad*.

Oe is pronounced like long *o* in *hoe, goes, roe, doe*; like *oo* in *shoe, canoe*; like *u* in *does*.

Oi has the sound of broad *a* and that of short *e*; as in *coil, soil, toil, broil, boil, rejoice, etc.*

Oi, when the *o* is accented, is sounded distinctly, as in *stoic, heroic*.

Oy is generally sounded like *oi*; as in *decoy, joy, alloy*; *choir* is usually sounded as if spelled *quire*.

Oo has the slender sound of *o* in *coo, too, room, fool, woo, mood, moon, food*; of *u* short; as in *blood, flood*; of *o* long in *floor, door*; and nearly that of long *u* in *good, food, wood*.

"*Ou* is generally a proper diphthong, uniting the sound of close *o*, and that of *u* sounded as slender *o* or *oo*; as in *bound, found, sound, ounce, thou*."

Ou is sometimes an improper diphthong having six different sounds. It has the sound of short *u* in *flourish, young, tough*; of slender *o* or *ou* in *through, you, soup*; of broad *a* in *thought*,

bought, ought ; of short *o* in *cough, trough, thought* ; of *oo* shortened, in *could, would, should* ; of long *o* in *dough, though, four, court*.

Ow is generally sounded like *ou* ; as in *down, crown, town* ; sometimes it is sounded like long *o*, as in *mow, sow, know*.

Diphthongs commencing with u.

U is sounded like *w* in the proper diphthongs *ua, ue, ui, uo, uy* ; as *suavity, queen, quiet, quote, obloquy*.

Uah when an improper diphthong, is sounded like Italian *a* ; as *guard, guardian* ; like obscure *e* as in *victuals* ; like short *a* ; as in *guarantee, piquant* ; and like long *u* ; as in *mantuamaker*. When an improper diphthong, it is also sounded like long *u* ; as in *hue, due* ; like short *e* as in *guest* ; like obscure *e* ; as in *antique, league*.

Ui, when an improper diphthong, is sounded like *i* ; as in *guile, guide* ; like short *i* ; as in *guilt, conduit* ; like long *u* ; as in *sluice, juice, suit*.

Uy, when an improper diphthong, is sounded like long *y* ; as in *buy* ; like long *e* ; as in *plaguy*.

§ 12. TRIPHTHONGS.

Triphthongs commencing with a.

Ave is sounded like broad *a* ; as in *hall, fall*.

The adverb *aye* is sounded like long *a* ; as in *slate*.

Triphthongs commencing with e.

Eau is sounded like long *o* ; as in *beau, flambeau* ; like long *u* in *beauty* and its derivations. In *cou*, the *e* is sounded distinctly from the *ou*, *e* having a long sound, and *ou* the sound of short *u* ; as in *gorgeous, extraneous*.

Ewe is sounded like *yu* in *ewe*.

Eye is sounded like long *i*.

Triphthongs commencing with i.

Ieu and *iew* are sounded like long *u* ; as in *view, review, lieu, purlieu*.

Ious is sounded like *yus* ; as in *bilious, contagious, religious*. When a liquid precedes it, it is sounded like short *i* and *u* ; as in *various, curious*.

Triphthongs commencing with o.

Oue occurs in words derived from the French language, and is sounded like *oo* in *manœuvre*. *Ow* is sounded like long *o*.

Triphthongs commencing with u.

Uai and *uay* are sounded like *way*; as in *quaint*, *qual*, *guaiacum*, *Uraguay*. "*Uaw* is sounded like *wa* in *water*; as in *squaw*, a female Indian."

"*Uoi* and *uoy* are sounded like *woi*; as in *quoit*, *buoy*."

FORMS OF LETTERS.

§ 13. In the English language, three kinds of letters are used :

1. The *Roman*, which is far the most common.
2. The *Italic*.
3. The *old English*.

Each of these kinds has two forms, small *letters* and *capitals*. The body of every essay is written in small letters; capitals are only used as marks of distinction.

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

RULE 1.

§ 14. The first word that begins an essay, the first after every period, and the first in every line of poetry, should begin with a capital letter.

False use of Capitals.

a lax theology is the natural parent of a lax morality. the evils which overtake nations, are the just judgments of the almighty. cursed is the man who trusteth in man, and maketh flesh his arm.

'tis sweet, in the green Spring,
to gaze upon the wakening fields around;
birds in the thicket sing,
winds whisper, waters prattle, from the ground
a thousand odors rise,
breathed up from blossoms of a thousand dyes.

RULE 2.

The first word of interrogatives should begin with a capi-

tal letter ; unless another question immediately succeeds which is closely connected with it.

False use, etc.

what reason did he assign for such conduct ? why did you not attend the meeting last evening ? was horace there ? did you ever hear mr. colburn speak ? how is your father's health ?

RULE 3.

Capital letters are used after exclamation points, except when they do not require a pause equal to that of a period.

False use, etc.

my friend ! this conduct amazes me ! bless the lord, o my soul ! and forget not all his benefits ! what is more amiable than virtue ! who can sufficiently express the goodness of our creator !

RULE 4.

The days of the week, and months of the year, should begin with a capital letter ; and also the names of the planets.

False use, etc.

on monday we went to the park, and on thursday we returned to lansingburgh. the eighth month is august. i shall go home in january. next to venus, the most brilliant of the planets is Jupiter. the planet saturn revolves round the sun in a period of about thirty of our years.

RULE 5.

The names of the Deity and those of the heathen gods, should begin with capitals ; as, Almighty, Jehovah, God ; Jupiter, Mars, Minerva, Venus, etc.

False use, etc.

the almighty god hath said it. the lord god jehovah reigneth. may the goddess minerva be propitious. the god of war is mars.

RULE 6.

The pronoun I, and O when it is not united with h, are expressed as capitals.

False use, etc.

on this point i have but one opinion. o ! if you only knew

how my brain is tortured! yes—oh! how happy i am. you and i understand all about these things.

RULE 7.

All names of continents, countries, states, counties, towns, oceans, seas, lakes, rivers and islands, should begin with a capital letter.

False use, etc.

the mediterranean sea separates europe from africa. the isle of man is in st. george's channel. he passed through washington on his way south. he crossed the atlantic ocean in two weeks. we caught some noble fish in the lake bombazine. steamboats go down the hudson in twelve hours. the capital of massachusetts is boston.

RULE 8.

All names of religious sects should begin with a capital; as, Papists, Baptists, Universalists, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Methodists, Friends; also the names of the different sects in idolatrous countries, should begin with a capital.

False use, etc.

the creed of the universalists favors the doctrine of universal salvation. those who adhere to the authority of the church of rome, are called papists. the friends can never be prevailed on to enlist in the army.

RULE 9.

Words derived from proper names, should begin with a capital; as, Ciceronian, Newtonian, Baconian.

False use, etc.

who does not admire the grecian and roman heroes of old! the newtonian system of philosophy has many enemies. his eloquence was of the ciceronian order. he studied english, french and italian.

RULE 10.

The names of all benevolent and other societies, and of festal days, should begin with a capital.

False use, etc.

the young men's debating society held a meeting last week. the maternal association has greatly increased since the com-

mencement of spring. the mutual insurance company will make a dividend this month. the boston lyceum is quite flourishing. the anniversary of our national independence was celebrated in the usual spirit. where were you last christmas?

RULE 11.

When an object is personified, and a strictly individual idea is expressed, the name of it should commence with a capital.

False use, etc.

indulgent fancy! from the fruitful banks
of avon.

earth felt the wound, and nature from her seat,
sighing through all her works, gave signs of wo
that all was lost.

then sated hunger bids his brother thirst
produce the mighty bowl.

RULE 12.

When a direct quotation is made, or an example is given from any specified author, the first word of each should commence with a capital ; as, "Think, then act." Cicero says, "Take care that the republic receive no detriment. When the quotation is indirect, the capital is unnecessary.

False use, etc.

always remember this ancient proverb, "know thyself." our great lawgiver says, "take up thy cross daily, and follow me." solomon observes, "that pride goes before destruction."

RULE 13.

Words used to express the principal subjects of a discourse, and those of special importance ; also "titles of books, and the heads of their principal divisions, should be printed in capitals." When books are merely mentioned, the chief words of their titles begin with capitals, and the other letters are small ; as, "Pope's Essay on Man." Proper names are sometimes written entirely with capitals.

False use, etc.

johnson's dictionary of the english language. rollin's ancient

history. bancroft's history of the united states. opie on lying. andrews' and stoddard's latin grammar. locke's essay on the human understanding. stewart's intellectual philosophy.

SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

§ 15. A syllable is one or more letters enounced by a single impulse of the voice, and forms either a whole word or only a part of it ; as, *man*, *manners*, *good*, *goodness*.

§ 16. Words are the medium of expressing thought and feeling, and may contain one or more syllables ; as, *hope*, *happiness*.

§ 17. A word of one syllable is called a monosyllable ; of two, a dissyllable ; of three, a trissyllable ; of four or more, a polysyllable.

§ 18. There are two kinds of words, *primitive* and *derivative*.

§ 19. A *primitive* word is one that cannot be reduced to a simpler form ; as, *man*, *tree*.

§ 20. A *derivative* word is derived from a simpler word ; as, *manhood*, *greatness*.

§ 21. Words are simple and compound.

§ 22. A simple word is not united with another word ; as, *youth*, *love*, *boy*.

§ 23. A compound word is composed of two or more simple words ; as, *watchman*, *hopeless*.

§ 24. Those words that are uniformly compounded are consolidated ; as, *schoolmaster*, *scholarship*, *penmanship*. Those that are occasionally united are joined with a hyphen ; as, *spelling-book*, *singing-school*.

DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

§ 25. Every word has as many syllables as separate vowels and diphthongs. A correct division is attained, therefore, when the consonants are united with their proper vowels and diphthongs.

RULES FOR THE DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

RULE 1.

When a consonant occurs between two vowels, it should be joined with the latter syllable ; as, *desire, reform, renounce*.

Exc. In compound words the consonant is joined with the former syllable ; as, *uneven, unoccupied*.

RULE 2.

Two consonants occurring together adapted to begin a syllable, should not be separated ; as, *rifle, noble, gracious*.

RULE 3.

Two consonants occurring between two vowels and not adapted to begin a syllable, should be separated ; as, *efficient, ebbing, error, utmost*.

RULE 4.

Three consonants occurring in the middle of a word adapted to begin a word, the preceding vowel being long, should not be separated ; as, *describe, dethrone*. But when the preceding vowel is short, one of the consonants should be joined with it ; as, *distrust, entangle, contract*.

RULE 5.

If three or more consonants not adapted to begin a word occur between two vowels, those that can properly begin a syllable belong to the latter, the rest to the former syllable ; as, *abbreviate, congress, transgress*.

RULE 6.

Two vowels coming together and not being diphthongs, should be divided into separate syllables ; as, *denial, society*.

RULE 7.

Compound words should be divided into the simple words of which they are composed ; as, *undergo, oversee*.

RULE 8.

Grammatical and other particular terminations are gen-

erally separated from the principal word; as, *teachest*, *teaching*, *teacher*, *greater*, *falsehood*.

RULE 9.

A word at the end of a line may be divided if necessary, but a syllable never should be divided.

QUESTIONS ON THE GENERAL DIVISION OF GRAMMAR.

What does English Grammar teach? How many general divisions has it? Name them.

SPELLING.

§ 26. Spelling is expressing words by their proper letters.

REM. This subject is attended with much difficulty and uncertainty, because all do not regard the same standard and the same rules of orthography. Different lexicographers and authors sometimes spell the same word differently, and many words are not spelled according to the analogy of similar words. A correct knowledge of spelling must, therefore, be acquired principally from the spelling-book and dictionary, and from a strict attention in reading. The following general rules may render some assistance to the scholar in acquiring a knowledge of this subject.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

RULE 1.

Monosyllables ending with *f*, *l*, or *s* preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *staff*, *mill*, *pass*; except, *of*, *if*, *is*, *has*, *yes*, *was*, *gas*, *his*, *this*, *us* and *thus*.

False Orthography.

A staf is often a support to the aged. But the chaf he will burn with fire unquenchable. The mil was swept away by the flood. Newton was a man off wisdom. There is little attained in any pursuit iff there be no vigorous effort. Washington distinguished himself ass a patriot. The nature of man iss complex. The winter hass been very mild. Troy wass. Hydrogen gass.

Are you studying the natural sciences? Yess. It is hiss honor that he especially regards. Thiss life iss uncertain. Let

uss not be deceived by flattery. Thuss the glory of the world passeth away.

RULE 2.

When words end with any other consonant than *f*, *l*, or *s*, the final letter is not doubled; as, *war*, *penmanship*; except *add*, *ebb*, *odd*, *egg*, *inn*, *err*, *burr*, *purr*, *butt*, *buzz*, and some proper names.

False Orthography.

Warr is a great scourge to man. A thingg cannot be and not be att the same time. Superior scholarshipp is attained only by greatt effortt. James was an od child. The seas eb and floww once eachh dayy. The crocodile is produced from an eg. An in in Persia is similar to a tavern in America. To er is human.

RULE 3.

Y final, preceded by a consonant, is changed into *i* before an additional syllable; as, *happy*, *happier*; *easy*, *easier*; *carry*, *carriest*; *merry*, *merriest*; except before *ing*, *y* is retained, that it may not be doubled; as, *study*, *studying*, *carry*, *carrying*. When words end with *ie*, the *e* is dropped, and *i* is changed into *y*; as, *lie*, *lying*; *die*, *dying*.

False Orthography.

John was happyer than his brother James. It is easier to tell what we shall do than to do it. An Elephant often car-ryes heavy burthens upon his back. The boys are studiing. The birds are fliing. I saw a drunkard liing in the street. "By faith, Isaac, when he was diing, blessed both the sons of Jacob." Heb. 11: 21.

RULE 4.

When *y* final is preceded by a vowel, it is not changed upon assuming an additional letter or syllable; as, *toy*, *toys*; *alloy*, *alloying*; except *lay*, *say*, *pay*, from which are formed *laid*, *said*, *paid*; and their compounds *unlaid*, *unpaid*, *unsaid*, etc.

False Orthography.

Children are delighted with tois. Ye vallies rise. The

wais of virtue are pleasant. Monkeis in some respects resemble a human being. Pray always.

RULE 5.

When monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ends with a single consonant preceded by a vowel, their final consonant is doubled before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *job, jobber; begin, beginning; thin, thinnish; general, generally*. But “*x* final, being equivalent to *ks*, is never doubled.”

False Orthography.

Error is often committed inadvertently. A father regreted deeply the loss of his son. The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom. Many are admitted to stations of respectability and honor who possess neither worth nor desert. He pened a few lives as a sample of his style of writing.

RULE 6.

When a final consonant is preceded by a diphthong, or when the accent is on the preceding syllable, it should not be doubled before an additional syllable; as, *toil, toiling; offer, offering; visit, visited*.

False Orthography.

Toilling I cry, sweet spirit, come! The heathen worship their idols with offerings. We visitted the museum. The prolixity of his discourse was tedious. He grovelled in the dirt.

RULE 7.

Final *e* is usually omitted before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *note, notable; rove, roving*; except when words end with *le* and *ge*; the *e* is retained before *able* or *ous* to preserve the soft sound of *e* and *g*; as, *charge, chargeable; peace, peaceable; outrage, outrageous*.

False Orthography.

He was a noteable man. Judas was a noteable character. This is a loveing child. Man is usually hoping for the better. Many are chargable with crimes. A peacable temper is of great value.

RULE 8.

When words end with any double letter and take *ness*, *less*, *ly*, or *ful* after them, the letter is preserved doubled; as, *hopeless*, *hopelessness*; *success*, *successful*. Except *fulfil*, in which one *l* is omitted.

False Orthography.

In order to be successful we must be energetic and persevering; for the hopelessness of despair accomplishes nothing. He acknowledged his error fully and entirely. He fulfilled to the very letter, all that he had promised.

RULE 9.

E final is usually retained before additional syllables beginning with a consonant; as, *paleness*, *guileless*, *closely*, *peaceful*; except in a few words; as, *due*, *duly*; *awe*, *awful*; *judge*, *judgment*; *lodge*, *lodgment*.

False Orthography.

His features soon assumed the paleness of death. His heart was perfectly guileless. He was closely pursued to his peaceful home. Harrison was duly elected President. He suffered the awful penalty of the law as a judgment for his crimes. The flood swept away the lodgement of wood which had accumulated in the stream.

RULE 10.

When words end with *ie*, the *e* is dropped, and the *i* is changed into *y* before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *die*, *dying*; *tie*, *tying*; *lie*, *lying*.

False Orthography.

He was in a dying situation. Having bound him to the tree by tying him with cords, he left him, so that the poor man passed the whole night in this position without lying down.

RULE 11.

When *ing* or *ish* is added to words ending with *e* silent, the *e* is usually omitted; as, *trace*, *tracing*; *blue*, *bluish*.

False Orthography.

After tracing a circle around the coals, he threw some fine

powders upon the fire, from which a blueish flame immediately arose several feet in height.

RULE 12.

Compound words generally retain the orthography of the simple words of which they are composed; as, *glasshouse*, *thereby*, *hereafter*; except in permanent compounds the words *full* and *all* generally drop one *l*; as, *already*, *welfare*. In compounds connected by a hyphen, the double letter is retained; as, *all-wise*.

False Orthography.

“He who lives in a glashouse should not throw stones.” He went to court and thereby gained his cause. We know not what will be hereafter, and yet, already we may judge something of the future welfare of this country from past experience. The al-wise Providence rules over all things.

Questions on Orthography.

What does Orthography teach? What are the elements of language? What is a letter? Of how many letters does the English Alphabet consist? How are letters divided? What is a vowel? Name the vowels. When are *w* and *y* vowels, and when consonants? What is a consonant? How are they divided? Define the mutes. Name them. What are liquids? Why are they so called? What are labials, and why are they so called? What are palatals, and why so called? What are linguals and why so called? What are nasals, and why so called? What are asperates, and why so called? What are gutturals, and why so called? How many sounds has *a*? How many sounds has *b*? *Similar questions may be asked in respect to all the letters of the Alphabet.*

Questions on Diphthongs and Triphthongs.

What is a diphthong? What is a proper diphthong? What is an improper diphthong? What is a triphthong? What is a proper triphthong? What is an improper triphthong. *Questions in respect to diphthongs and triphthongs may be extended by the teacher at pleasure.*

Questions on the forms of letters.

How many kinds of letters are used in the English lan-

guage? Name them. How many forms has each kind? What are they? How is the body of a discourse written? How are capitals used?

Questions on the use of capitals.

What is the first rule? The second? Third? Fourth? Fifth? Sixth? Seventh? Eighth? Ninth? Eleventh? Twelfth? Thirteenth?

Questions on syllables and words.

What is a syllable? What are words? What is a word of one syllable called? Of two syllables? Of three? Of four or more? How many kinds of words are there? What are they? Define a primitive word. Define a derivative word. How are words composed? What is a simple word? What is a compound word? When are words said to be consolidated? When are words only joined with a hyphen?

Questions on the division of words into syllables.

How many syllables has every word? What is necessary to divide a word into syllables correctly? What is the first rule? The second? Third? Fourth? Fifth? Sixth? Seventh? Eighth? Ninth?

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

§ 27. Etymology teaches the derivation of words, their classification and inflections.

REMARK 1. Etymology explains how one word is derived from another; as, from *teach*, are derived *teacher*, *teachest*, *teacheth*, *taught*, *teaching*. From *great*, are derived *greater*, *greatest*, and *greatness*.

REM. 2. Etymology, scientifically viewed, explains the origin and meaning of words, their composition, and decomposition, and their application to things according to the laws of nature and mind. It may be extended not only to the derivation of one word from another, but to the manner of deriving English words from foreign languages. This, however, is the business of the lexicographer and not of the philologist.

REM. 3. Etymology teaches also the proper method of classifying words. The object of the classification of words, is practical convenience. The only true principle of classification is the meaning of words according to present use, and not according to their primitive meaning or combinations. Most of the words in the English language express different senses, according to their construction in sentences. Thus, *but* is used as an *adversative conjunction* when it denotes opposition ; as a *preposition* when it is used in the sense of *except* ; and as an *adverb*, when it is used in the sense of *only*. The noun *love*, denotes a simple feeling ; but when used as a *verb*, it denotes the *exercise* of the feeling of love. A different position of words in a sentence, gives them different meanings.

REM. 4 . Etymology refers to the inflections of words. By inflections are meant the changes which are produced on the termination of words to express their different relations to one another ; as, *name, names ; great, greater ; she, hers ; friend, friends*.

REM. 5. The English language is derived chiefly from the Danish, Celtic, Gothic and Saxon ; “ but in its progressive stages of refinement, it has been greatly enriched by accessions from the Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, Italian and German languages.”

§ 28. The different classes of words are called *parts of speech*.

§ 29. There are ten parts of speech in English ;—*Article, Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Participle, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction and Interjection*.

REMARK. Words should be classified and parsed according to their *constructive meaning*. A word whose meaning accords with the definition given to a noun, should be parsed *as such*. One which accords with the definition of a verb, should be parsed *as such*, etc., without being governed strictly by its form.

ARTICLES.

§ 30. An article is a word placed before nouns to limit or define their meaning. The articles are *a, an* and *the*.

§ 31. There are two kinds of articles ;—*definite* and *indefinite*.

§ 32. *A* and *an* are the indefinite articles, and generally denote one of a kind, but no particular one ; as, *a man, a tree, an image, an island.*

REMARK 1. When the following word begins with a vowel sound, *an* should be used ; as, *an arm, an hour, an heir.*

REM. 2. When the following word begins with a consonant sound, *a* should be used ; as, *a house, a heart, a one, a year, a use, a ewer.*

REM. 3. *An* is derived from the Saxon word *ane*, or *an*, and denotes one. It was formerly written *an* before consonants, but now *a* simply is used to facilitate the utterance of words, and to increase their euphony.

REM. 4. The indefinite article *a* or *an* sometimes limits the signification of nouns to one specific thing of the kind ; as, Solomon built *a* temple. *A* signal battle was fought at Waterloo. The Lord God planted *a* garden eastward in Eden. Samuel Johnson compiled *a* dictionary.

§ 33. *The* is a definite article, and denotes a particular thing or class of things ; as, *the rose, the man, the nation.*

REMARK 1. *The* is used before both vowels and consonants. In poetry the *e* is sometimes dropped before words beginning with a vowel, and *th* unites with the succeeding vowel ; as, *Th' embroidered vest.* When elisions are thus made, a comma should be placed above or between the words.

REM. 2. A noun unlimited, is sometimes taken in its widest sense ; and in other cases, it denotes a part but not the whole species ; as, "The proper study of mankind is man." Here the word *man* extends to the whole species. Again ; "In the first place, woman has in general a much stronger propensity than man to the perfect discharge of parental duties." Here *woman* and *man* comprehend each the whole species of their sex. "There are *fishes* that have wings, and are not strangers to the airy regions." Here the term *fishes* cannot denote the whole species, unless all *fish* have wings. "*Nation* shall rise up against *nation.*" "When ye shall see Jerusalem encompassed with *armies.*" In these two examples, *nations* cannot comprehend all nations ; nor *armies*, all armies.

REM. 2. Proper names are sufficiently definite without defining terms. But when individuals possess some prominent traits of character, so that there is a similitude between them,

this sameness of character becomes in the mental view a species; and the name of an individual possessing such a character admits the articles and the plural number; as, a cruel man may be called *a Nero*; a very eloquent man may be called *a Cicero*; a very philanthropic man, a *Howard*; a distinguished general is called *a Cæsar*; and a distinguished band of conspirators, *the Catalinæ*.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

REMARK. Parsing is explaining a sentence according to the definitions and principles of Grammar.

“The Nation.”

What part of speech is *the*? § 30. Why? § 30. What kind of an article? § 33. Why? § 33. To what does it belong? Ans. *Nation*.

“A house.”

What part of speech is *a*? § 30. Why? § 30. What kind of an article? § 32. With what does it agree? Ans. *House*.

“An oak.”

What part of speech is *an*? § 30. Why? § 30. What kind of an article? § 32. Why? § 32. With what does it agree? Ans. *Oak*.

QUESTIONS—First Course.

What is Etymology? What are the different classes of words called? How many parts of speech are there? Name them. What is an article? How many kinds are there? What is an indefinite article? What definite?

QUESTIONS—Second Course.

What is meant by the term etymology? What by classification? What by inflections? On what principle are words classified? When should *an* be used? When *a*? When a noun is not limited by an article, how is it generally taken? Does the indefinite article ever limit the noun to a particular thing of a kind?

NOUNS.

§ 34. A noun is the name of anything that exists, or of which we form an idea; as, *man, virtue, thought, Eden, garden, water*.

REMARK. Sentences or parts of sentences are often used as nouns ; as, "*That scholars should obey their teachers*, is indispensable."

§ 35. Nouns are either proper or common.

§ 36. A proper noun is the name of an individual object ; as, *Rome, Augustine, Thomas*.

REMARK 1. Proper names become common when they comprehend two or more individuals, except when they are taken collectively ; as, *The Smiths ; the Howards ;*

"*Two Roberts* there the pagan force defied."

REM. 2. The names of persons, countries, places, rivers, streets, vessels, etc., are proper nouns ; as, *Howard, Europe, Boston, Hudson, Ship Albion, Nassau-street*.

REM. 3. The names of the days of the week, of festal days, of the months of the year, are proper nouns.

§ 36. A common noun denotes a class of objects to any one of which it may be properly applied ; as, *beast, tree, river*.

REMARK. The names of distinguished individuals with an article prefixed, become common nouns, when used to denote others possessing similar traits of character ; as, "*a Howard*," denoting a distinguished philanthropist ; "*the Cicero of his age*," a distinguished orator ; "*a Bacon*," a distinguished philosopher.

§ 37. Common nouns are divided into six classes ; the *abstract*, the *collective*, the *participial*, the *compound*, the *sentential*, and the *verbal*.

§ 38. An abstract noun denotes a quality or a mode of being or action, considered apart from the subject or agent ; as, *virtue, goodness, haste*.

§ 39. A collective noun denotes a collection of objects ; as, *council, assembly, flock, congregation*.

REMARK. *Collective* nouns in the singular form are plural in the meaning when they may be resolved into the individual parts of which they are composed ; as, "The council did not give *their* decision upon the question under consideration." The pronoun *their* refers to the noun *council*, and represents the *members* of which the council was composed.

§ 40. A *participial* noun partakes of the nature of a participle and noun ; as, “The mind is improved by *exercising* vigorously its several powers.”

§ 41. A *verbal* noun is a verb in the infinitive mode used as a noun ; as, “*To err* is human.” “*To die* is the destiny of all men.”

§ 42. A *compound* noun is composed of two or more words united by a hyphen ; as, “In reading, every appearance of *sing-song* should be avoided.”

§ 43. A *sentential* noun is a sentence used as a noun ; as, “*That human nature is the same in all ages*, is undeniably true.”

MODIFICATIONS OF NOUNS.

§ 44. Nouns have four kinds of modifications,—*Person, Number, Gender* and *Case*.

§ 45. *Person* in grammar, denotes the speaker, the person or thing addressed, or the person or thing which is the subject of discourse.

REMARK 1. The distinction of person is based upon the different relations which the subjects considered have to the discourse itself.

REM. 2. This distinction refers only to nouns, pronouns, and finite verbs.

§ 46. There are three persons ; the *first*, the *second* and the *third*.

§ 47. The *first person* denotes the speaker.

§ 48. The *second person* denotes the person or thing addressed.

§ 49. The *third person* denotes the person or thing which is the subject of the discourse.

REM. 1. In composition, the *author* is the first person, and the *reader* the second person ; except when he represents in his own language some one else addressing another person.

REM. 2. If the speaker or writer do not wish to present himself in the first person, or the reader in the second person, he speaks of both or either in the third person ; as, “Moses relates

what Moses did;" and "Cæsar records the achievements of Cæsar." So, "Judah humbly beseeches Joseph, Let thy servant abide instead of the lad, a bondman to my lord." Gen. 44: 33. "Oh let not the Lord be angry, and I will speak." Gen. 18: 30.

REM. 3. Frequently inanimate objects are personified and addressed as animate, and therefore their names take the form of the second person. Thus by a figure of speech they are represented as capable of hearing, feeling, and seeing; as, "Hear, O heavens, and give ear, O earth!" Isa. 1: 2. "The hills melted like wax at the presence of the Lord." Ps. 97: 5. "The lightnings enlightened the world; the earth saw and trembled." Ps. 97: 4.

NUMBER.

§ 50. Number is the distinction of objects, as one or more.

REM. Number is applicable to nouns, pronouns, and finite verbs.

§ 51. There are two numbers, *singular* and *plural*.

§ 52. The *singular* denotes one object or a collection of objects; as, *a house, a man, a ship; an assembly, a company, a dozen*.

§ 53. The *plural* number denotes two or more objects not considered collectively; as, *men, ships, assemblies, companies, dozens*.

REM. 1. The plural number of nouns is generally formed by affixing *s* or *es* to the singular; as, *thought, thoughts; sea, seas; hand, hands; box, boxes*.

REM. 2. When the terminating letter of the noun will unite with the sound of *s*, the plural is formed by annexing *s* only; as, *hat, hats; pen, pens*. But when the terminating letter will not unite with the sound of *s*, it increases the number of syllables; as, *voice, voices; rose, roses*.

REM. 3. When nouns end with *ch* soft, *sh*, *ss*, or *s*, the plural is formed by annexing *es* to the singular; as, *church, churches; bush, bushes; mattress, mattresses; lens, lenses*. But after *ch* hard, the plural is formed by annexing *s* only; as, *monarch, monarchs*.

REM. 4. The plural number of some nouns ending with *f* or *fe*, is formed by changing these terminations into *ves*; as, *sheaf, sheaves; thief, thieves; wharf, wharves; wolf, wolves; calf, calves; wife, wives; life, lives; knife, knives; elf, elves; loaf, loaves; beef, beefs; half, halves*, changed to *sheaves, shelves*, etc. The plural of some others,

having the same terminations, are regularly formed; as, *fife*, *fifes*; *strife*, *strifes*; *chief*, *chiefs*; *gulf*, *gulfs*; *grief*, *griefs*, etc.

REM. 5. The plural of nouns ending with *ff*, is formed regularly; as, *ruff*, *ruffs*; *muff*, *muffs*; *puff*, *puffs*; *staff* makes *staves*, except when compounded, and then the plural is formed regularly; as, *flag-staff*, *flag-staffs*.

REM. 6. When nouns end with *y*, preceded by a consonant, *y* is changed into *i*, and *es* is annexed; as, *study*, *studies*; *beauty*, *beauties*. But when *y* is preceded by a vowel, *s* only is annexed; as, *boy*, *boys*; *day*, *days*. (So in proper names; as, *Stuart*, *Stuarts*.)

REM. 7. When nouns end with *o* preceded by a consonant, the plural is formed by annexing *es* without increasing the syllables; as, *negro*, *negroes*; *cargo*, *cargoes*; *volcano*, *volcanoes*. Sometimes *s* only is annexed, when the final *o* is preceded by a vowel; as, *punctilio*, *punctilios*; *folio*, *folios*; *bamboo*, *bamboos*; *two*, *twos*.

REM. 8. The following nouns form their plurals irregularly:

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Foot,	feet	Louse,	lice
Child,	children	Goose,	geese
Tooth,	teeth	Brother,	{ brethren, or
Man,	men		{ brothers
Woman,	women	Mouse,	mice
Pea,	peas, or pease	Penny,	pennies or pence
Ox,	oxen	Die,	dies, or dice.

NOTE. *Pennies* denote real coins; *pence*, their value in computation. *Dies* denote stamps for coining; *dice* pieces used for gaming.

REM. 9. Many foreign nouns, retain their original plurals.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Thesis,	theses	Arcanum,	arcana
Beau,	beaux or beaus	Datum,	data
Emphasis,	emphases	Erratum,	errata
Antithesis,	antitheses	Effluvium,	effluvia
Hypothesis,	hypotheses	Medium,	media
Criterion,	criteria	Stamen,	stamina
Focus,	foci	Stratum,	strata
Roclius,	roclii	Minutia,	minutiæ
Index,	indices	Genus,	genera
Calx,	calces	Genius,	genii
Phenomenon,	phenomena	Magus,	magi
Appendix,	appendices	Elipsis,	elipses
Vortex,	vortices	Metamorphosis,	metamorphoses

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Axis,	axes	Automaton,	automata
Basis,	bases	Cherub,	cherubim
Crisis,	crises.	Seraph,	seraphim.

REM. 10. Many of the foregoing words occasionally form their plurals like English words ; as,

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Criterion,	criteria	Index,	indices
Focus,	foci	Calx,	calculus
Radius,	radii	Stamen,	stamens,
Genius,	geniuses.	Appendix,	appendices.

NOTE 2. Sometimes *cherubim* and *seraphim*, which are really Hebrew plurals, annex *s* to *cherub* and *seraph*, of which *cherubim* and *seraphim* are the plurals.

REM. 11. Some nouns do not admit of plurality ; as, *gold*, *silver*, *tin*, *pitch*, *pride*, *sloth*, *hemp*, *barley*, *flour*, *rye*.

REM. 12. Some nouns are used in both numbers without a change of form ; as, *cattle*, *deer*, *sheep*, *kine*, *swine*, *horse*, *trout*, *salmon*, *perch*, *carp*, *bellows*, *gallows*.

REM. 13. *Hour*, *year*, *mile*, *foot*, *pound*, etc. are sometimes used to express plurality, without a change of form ; as, *six year* ; *two mile* ; *three pound* ; *ten hour*. Such usage, however, is very improper, and is not sanctioned by good authority.

REM. 14. The following nouns have plural terminations. Those denoting plurality may be joined with plural verbs ; as, *annals*, *archives*, *ashes*, *assets*, *bitters*, *bowels*, *compasses*, *clothes*, *calends*, *breeches*, *drawers*, *downs*, *dregs*, *embers*, *entrails*, *fetters*, *filings*, *goods*, *hatches*, *ides*, *lees*, *lungs*, *matins*, *mallows*, *orgies*, *nippers*, *pinchers* or *pinchers*, *pleiads*, *snuffers*, *customs*, *shears*, *scissors*, *shambles*, *tidings*, *tongs*, *thanks*, *vespers*, *vitals*, *virtuals*.

REM. 15. The term *letters*, denoting literature, belongs to the same class ; and so *manners*, denoting behavior.

REM. 16. The following nouns have the plural terminations, and are mostly used in the singular ; as, *amends*, *alms*, *bellows*, *gallows*, *odds*, *means*, *pains*, *news*, *riches*, *wages*, *billiards*, *fives*, *scissors*, *measles*, *hysterics*, *physics*, *ethics*, *optics*, *tonics*, *catoptrics*, *dioptrics*, *acoustics*, *pneumatics*, *statics*, *statistics*, *spherics*, *tactics*, *eramic*, *mathematics*, *mechanics*, *hydraulics*, *hydrostatics*, *analytics*, *politics*.

REM. 17. *Means* is uniformly used in the singular.

REM. 18. *Pains* preceded by *much*, should be connected with a plural verb.

REM. 19. The names of nations and societies have the plural

form; as, *the Latins, the Protestants*. The article is usually prefixed, except in direct addresses.

REM. 20. *Ful* in composition, and ending a word, forms the plural regularly by annexing *s*; as, *handful, handfuls; mouthful, mouthfuls*.

REM. 21. Other parts of speech, acquiring the nature of nouns, form their plural, like nouns of the same termination, regularly; as, *dropping*, a participle, annexes an *s* when it becomes a participial noun; as, *fives, twos, two-thirds, three-sevenths*; the *ups* and *downs*; the *ayes* and *nays*; the *outs* and *ins*; the *doings* and *sayings*.

REM. 22. Proper names never admit a plural, except where two or more individuals are represented by the same name; as, *the Cæsars; the Ciceroes; the Howards*.

REM. 23. When two or more persons are represented by the same name, the title prefixed, should be singular; as, *The Miss Meachams; The Miss Howards*.

REM. 22. When two or more persons are represented by different names, the title prefixed should be plural; as, *The Misses Gould and Livingston*.

GENDER.

§ 54. Gender is the distinction of names with regard to sex.

§ 55. There are three genders; the *masculine*, the *feminine* and *neuter*.

§ 56. *Masculine* gender denotes *males*; as, *man, father, kings*.

§ 57. *Feminine* gender denotes *females*; as, *woman, mother, queen*.

§ 58. *Neuter* gender denotes things without sex; as, *a field, a house, a garden*.

REM. 1. Some grammarians apply the term *common gender* to nouns that are equally applicable to both sexes. This, however, is a total misapplication of terms, and is unnecessary in parsing the English language. The context will determine the gender of those names that are applicable to either sex. If the gender is unknown, the term that denotes the masculine gender should be used rather than that of the feminine.

REM. 2. There are three ways of distinguishing sex in the English language;

1. By different words; as,

<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>	<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>
Bachelor,	maid	Launderer,	laundress
Beau,	belle	Lord,	lady
Boy,	girl	Man,	woman
Bridegroom,	bride	Master,	mistress
Brideman,	bridemaid	Margrave,	margravine
Brother,	sister	Marquis,	marchioness
Buck,	doe	Milter,	spawner
Drake,	duck	Moor,	moorisco
Drone,	bee	Nephew,	neice
Duke,	duchess	Sloven,	slut
Father,	mother	Sir,	madam
Friar,	nun	Sire,	dame
Gander,	goose	Son,	daughter
Hart,	roe	Stag,	hind
Hero,	heroine	Steer,	heifer
Husband,	wife	Uncle,	aunt
King,	queen	Wizzard,	witch
Lad,	lass	Widower,	widow.
Landgrave,	landgravine.		

2. By different terminations; as,

<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>	<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>
Abbot,	abbess	Czar	czarina
Actor,	actress	Deacon,	deaconess
Adulterer,	adultrass	Demandor,	demandress
Ambassador,	ambassadress	Demon,	demoness
Adulator,	adulatress	Detractor,	detractress
Anchoret,	anchoress	Director,	directress
Arbiter,	arbitress	Doctor,	doctress
Auditor,	auditress	Editor,	editress
Author,	authoress	Elector,	electress
Barber,	barbress	Emperor,	empress
Baron,	baroness	Enchantor,	enchantress
Benefactor,	benefactress	Fornicator,	fornicatress
Canon,	canoness	Founder,	foundress
Caterer,	cateress	God,	goddess
Champion,	championess	Governor,	governess
Chanter,	chantress	Guider,	guideress
Charmer,	charmeress	Hebrew,	hebrewess
Chider,	chideress	Heir,	heirress
Chief,	chiefess	Hermit,	hermitess
Cloisterer,	cloistress	Host,	hostess
Coheir,	coheirress	Huckster,	huckstress
Competitor,	{ competitress	Hunter,	huntress
Conductor,	{ competitrix	Idolator,	idolatress
Count, Earl,	conductress	Inheritor,	{ inheritress
Creator,	countess	Instructor,	{ inheritrix
	creatress		instructress

<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>	<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>
Inventor,	inventress	Seamster,	seamstress
Jew,	jewess	Shepherd,	shepherdess
Legislator,	{ legislatrix	Solicitor,	solicitress
Lion,	{ lioness	Songster,	songstress
Mayor,	mayoress	Sorcerer,	sorceress
Mediator,	{ mediatrix	Spectator,	spectatoress
Monitor,	monitress	Sultan,	{ sultanness
Murderer,	murderess	Suitor,	suitress
Neatherd,	neatress	Tailor,	tailoress
Negro,	negress	Tempter,	temptress
Orator,	{ oratrix	Tiger,	tigress
Patron,	patroness	Traitor,	traitress
Pedlar,	pedlaress	Treasurer,	treasuress
Peer,	peeress	Tutor,	tutoress, tutress
Poet,	poetess	Tyrant,	tyranness
Porter,	portress	Viscount,	viscountess
Preceptor,	preceptress	Victor,	victress
Priest,	priestess	Votary,	votaress
Prince,	princess	Warrior,	warrioress
Prior,	prioress	Administrator,	administratrix
Procurer,	procuress	Arbitrator,	arbitratrix
Prophet,	prophetess	Coadjutor,	coadjutrix
Protector,	protectress	Deserter,	desertrix
Quaker,	quakeress	Executor,	executrix
		Testator,	testatrix.

3. By prefixing a word, indicating sex ; as,

A male teacher,
Male children,
A man servant,
A he goat,

a female teacher,
female children,
a maid servant.
a she goat.

REM. 3. When a noun of multitude conveys the idea of unity, or admits of the plural form, it is of the neuter gender ; as, the society for the suppression of intemperance, will hold *its* annual meeting in June.

REM. 4. When a noun of multitude conveys the idea of plurality and does not admit the plural form, it takes the gender of the individuals which compose the multitude ; as, "Parliament is dissolved." "My people do not consider."

REM. 5. When the gender of the noun denoting a brute is unknown, or a knowledge of it is unnecessary, the neuter gender is used ; as, "If a man shall steal an *ox* or a *sheep*, and kill *it*, or sell *it*," etc. Ex. xxii.

REM. 6. Generic nouns often include both sexes, when they are parsed as masculine or feminine ; as, "Hast thou given the

horse strength? Hast thou clothed *his* neck with thunder?" "Doth the *hawk* fly with wisdom, and stretch *her* wings toward the south?"

CASES.

§ 59. *Cases* denote the different relations which nouns and pronouns have to other parts of speech.

§ 60. There are three cases, the *nominative*, the *possessive* and the *objective*.

REM. The *nominative* and *objective* cases of nouns are distinguished only by their position, or the sense of the passage. The *possessive* case is known by the termination of the noun. The cases of most of the pronouns are distinguished by their forms.

§ 61. The *nominative* case denotes the subject of a verb; as, *Charles* studies; *Troy* was; *Light* is sown in the path of the righteous.

REM. 1. The *subject* of an active verb, denotes a person or thing of which a mental or physical action is affirmed; as, "The boy plays."

REM. 2. The *subject* of a neuter verb denotes a person or thing of which a particular state or quality is affirmed by the verb and its modifiers; as, "Washington was an ardent lover of his country."

REM. 3. The *subject* of a passive verb, denotes a person or thing that receives an action which is described by the verb and its modifiers; as, "The primitive *Christians* were persecuted by opposers of Christianity."

§ 62. The *possessive* case denotes the relation of property or possession; as, "*John's* hat." "*His* book."

§ 63. The possessive case of *singular* nouns, is formed by annexing *s* with an apostrophe; as, "John's book."

§ 64. When the nominative plural ends with *s*, an apostrophe only is annexed; as, singular, "hat's;" plural, "hats."

§ 65. When plural nouns do not end with *s*, the possessive case is usually formed as in the singular, by annexing *s* with an apostrophe; as, "Men's."

REM. 1. When the singular and the plural are alike in the

nominative, and the apostrophe does not indicate an elision, it should follow the *s* in the plural ; as, *sheep's, sheeps'.*—*Dr. Johnson.*

REM. 2. When the apostrophic *s* unites with the noun, it is pronounced in the same syllable ; as, *John's.* But when the apostrophic *s* does not unite with the noun, it adds a syllable to the word ; as, *George's*, pronounced *Georgiz* ; *Thomas's*, pronounced *Thomasiz.*

REM. 3. When the noun ends in *ence, es, or ss*, the apostrophe is annexed without the *s* ; as, “*eagles' wings*,” “*for goodness' sake*,” “*for conscience' sake.*”

REM. 4. “Sometimes the apostrophe and *s* are annexed to simple characters, to express plurality ;” as, *7 b's, 4 c's, 12 w's.*

REM. 5. When proper names end with *ss* or *x*, the possessive case is expressed by annexing an apostrophe and the letter *s*, if their termination with the following word requires it ; as, “*Ross's discoveries*,” “*Niles's Register.*” “But when their union with the following word does not require it,” the apostrophe only is annexed ; as, “*Achilles' wrath.*”

§ 66. The *objective* case denotes the object of a verb, participle or preposition ; as, “*John studies his lessons.*” “*Having accomplished my purpose, I am satisfied.*” “*Light burst upon his enraptured vision.*”

REM. The objective case is the object of an action when it follows a transitive verb or participle, and of a relation when it follows a preposition.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

§ 67. The declension of a noun is the proper arrangement of its numbers and cases. Thus :

EXAMPLE 1.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> mind,	<i>Nom.</i> minds,
<i>Poss.</i> mind's,	<i>Poss.</i> minds',
<i>Obj.</i> mind.	<i>Obj.</i> minds.

EXAMPLE 2.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> man,	<i>Nom.</i> men,
<i>Poss.</i> man's,	<i>Poss.</i> men's,
<i>Obj.</i> man.	<i>Obj.</i> men.

EXAMPLE 3.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> box,	<i>Nom.</i> boxes,
<i>Poss.</i> box's,	<i>Poss.</i> boxes',
<i>Obj.</i> box.	<i>Obj.</i> boxes.

EXAMPLE 4.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> fly,	<i>Nom.</i> flies,
<i>Poss.</i> fly's,	<i>Poss.</i> flies',
<i>Obj.</i> fly.	<i>Obj.</i> flies.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

"The boy reads."

What part of speech is *the*? § 30. Why? § 30. What kind of an article? § 33. To what is it prefixed? *Boy*. What part of speech is *boy*? § 34. Why? § 34. What kind of a noun? § 36. Why common? § 36. What gender? § 56. Why? § 56. What person? § 49. Why third person? § 49. What number? § 52. Why singular number? § 52. What case? § 61. Why nominative? § 61. Of what verb is it the subject? *Reads*. Why is it the subject of *reads*? § 61. Remark 1.

"James learns grammar."

What part of speech is James? § 34. What kind of a noun? § 36. Why? § 36. What gender? § 56. Why, masculine? § 56. What person? § 49. Why, third person? § 49. What number? § 52. Why singular number? § 52. What case? § 61. Why nominative case? § 61. Of what verb is it the subject? *Learns*. Why is it the subject of *learns*? § 61, R. 1.

What part of speech is grammar? § 34. Why? § 34. What kind of a noun? § 36. Why common? § 36. What gender? § 58. Why neuter? § 58. What person? § 49. Why? § 49. What number? § 52. Why singular? § 52. What case? § 66. Of what verb is it the object? *Learns*. Why is it? § 66.

The scholar may parse the articles and the nouns in the following sentences. References will be made only to those sections to which no reference has hitherto been made.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

Apples¹ grow. Vice degrades the mind. John has a book,

¹ § 53.

The sun¹ shines. The world is. Tranquility² promotes happiness. Union³ is strength. The assembly⁴ is dismissed. The disciples⁵ were persecuted.

QUESTIONS—*First Course.*

What is a noun? How many kinds of nouns are there? What is a proper noun? A common? What does an abstract noun denote? What does a collective noun denote? What is a participial noun? A verbal noun? A compound noun? What is a sentential noun? How are nouns modified? What does person denote? How many persons are there? Describe the first person. Second. Third. What is number? How many numbers are there? What does the singular number denote? Plural? How is the plural number of nouns formed? What is gender? How many genders are there? What does the masculine gender denote? Feminine? Neuter? What do cases denote? How many cases are there? What does the nominative denote? Possessive? How is the possessive case formed? When the nominative plural ends with *s*, how do we form the possessive? When the nominative plural does not end in *s*, how is the possessive formed? What does the objective case denote?

QUESTIONS—*Second Course.*

Are sentences ever used as nouns? When do proper nouns become common? Are the names of persons, countries, etc. proper or common? Are names of days, weeks, months, etc. common? When do the names of distinguished individuals, with the article prefixed, become common nouns? What kind of nouns are abstract, collective, participial, etc.? When is a collective noun plural in meaning? When unity is implied, what form does the collective noun take? Upon what is the distinction of person based? To what does this distinction refer? Of what person is the author, and reader? When the speaker does not desire to represent himself in the third person, what one may he adopt? Are inanimate objects ever personified? To what is number applicable? When the terminating letter will unite with the sound of *s*, how is the plural formed? When nouns end with *ch* soft, *sh*, *ss*, or *s*, how is the plural formed? How do nouns that end with *f* or *fe*, form the plural? How are nouns that end with *ff* formed? When a noun ends

¹ § 58. ² § 38. ³ § 38. ⁴ § 39. ⁵ § 61, Rem. 3.

with *y*, preceded by a consonant, how is the plural formed? When the terminating letter is *o*, preceded by a consonant, how is the plural formed? [The teacher may repeat the singular of the nouns under Rem. 8 and 9, § 52, and the pupil may give the plurals.] Are there any nouns which do not admit of plurality? Repeat some. What nouns are used in both numbers? The names of nations and societies have what form? How does *ful*, in composition and ending a word, form its plural? When other parts of speech become nouns, how are their plurals formed? Do proper names admit of a plural? When a number of persons are represented by the same name, what should the title be? How do some grammarians apply the term *common gender*? How many ways are there of distinguishing sex? Of what gender is a noun of multitude signifying unity? When a noun of multitude signifies plurality, what gender does it take? When the gender of the noun is unknown, what gender is used? What do generic nouns include? How are the nominative and objective cases of nouns distinguished? What does the subject of an active verb denote? What does the subject of a passive verb denote? Of a neuter verb? When the singular and plural are alike in the nominative, what does the apostrophe indicate, and how should it follow the *s*? When the apostrophic *s* unites with the noun, how is it pronounced? When it does not unite, does it add a syllable? When the noun ends with *ence*, *es*, or *ss*, how is the apostrophe annexed? If proper nouns end with *ss* or *x*, how is the possessive case expressed?

ADJECTIVES.

§ 68. An adjective is a word prefixed to a noun or pronoun to qualify it, or limit its meaning; as, a *good* man; an *industrious* student.

§ 69. "Adjectives are not varied on account of gender, number or case."

§ 70. There are eight classes of adjectives; the *common*, the *proper*, the *numeral*, the *definite*, the *distributive*, the *indefinite*, the *compound* and the *participial*.

§ 71. A *common* adjective, qualifies a noun or pronoun, or defines its situation; as, "a *pure* mind; "a *kind* man; " *southern* states; " *northern* regions; the *eastern* continent."

§ 72. A *proper* adjective is formed from a proper noun, and denotes the peculiar qualities or condition of the person or thing expressed by the noun ; as, *English, French, Roman, Baconian, Newtonian, American*, etc.

§ 73. A *numeral* adjective limits the noun to a specific number ; as, *one, two, three, four*, etc.

REM. There are two classes of numeral adjectives, viz. *ordinal* and *cardinal*.

1. *Ordinal*, are used for numbering ; as, *first, second, third, fourth*, etc.

2. *Cardinal*, are used for counting ; as, *one, two, three, four*, etc.

§ 74. A *definite* adjective distinguishes nouns specifically. They are *this* and *that* ; *these* and *those* ; *former* and *latter*.

REM. *This, these* and *latter*, denote the nearest person or thing mentioned ; *that, those* and *former*, the more distant.

§ 75. A *distributive* adjective, denotes each one of a number considered separately. They are, *each, every, either* and *neither*.

§ 76. An *indefinite* adjective expresses its subjects indefinitely. They are, *some, one, any, other, all, such, both, same, another, none*, and sometimes *which* and *what*.

REM. 1. When the *definite, distributive* and *indefinite* adjectives represent nouns, they should be regarded and parsed as pronouns. When they define nouns expressed or understood, they should be parsed as described above.

REM. 2. The *definite, distributive* and *indefinite* adjectives, are called by some grammarians *pronominal* adjectives ; but the term *pronominal* should not be applied when they are used simply as definitives. The term *pronoun* denotes a word standing in the place of a noun, and should be applied to the above adjectives only when they are used as substitutes.

§ 77. A *compound* adjective, is composed of two or more words united by a hyphen ; as, *cloud-capt, rock-bound, high-handed*.

REM. *Compound* adjectives are not susceptible of the degrees of comparison; as, *well-formed*.

§ 78. A *participial* adjective, partakes of the nature of a participle and also of an adjective; as, a *thriving* man; a *charming* boy; an *alluring* scene.

MODIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 79. The different qualities of things are generally expressed by the *degrees of comparison*.

§ 80. There are *four* degrees of comparison; viz., the *indefinite*, the *positive*, the *comparative* and the *superlative*.

REM. The four degrees of comparison as above, are sufficiently numerous to express the most obvious relations of things compared. They, however, come far short of denoting all the minute degrees that exist in the comparison of things. The degrees are as numerous as the *relations* of things compared are endless. An ocean is larger than a lake. This is a general comparison; but a more minute comparison would show how many more square feet or inches the surface of the ocean contained than that of the lake. But it would be both useless and contrary to the genius of language, to apply distinct terms to every minute degree of comparison of which it is susceptible.

§ 81. The *indefinite*, expresses a slight degree of the quality, and is distinguished by the termination *ish*; as, *greenish, yellowish, brownish, reddish*, etc.

REM. The *indefinite* degree of comparison is also expressed by such words as *rather, considerably, quite*, etc.; as, *rather dark, considerably dark, quite dark*.

§ 82. The *positive* denotes a distinct quality; as, *green, yellow, red, brown, great, wise*, etc.

§ 83. The *comparative* denotes a greater or less degree of quality than exists in another object with which it is compared; as *greater, wiser, better, redder, browner*, etc.

§ 84. The *superlative degree* denotes the highest or

lowest degree of a quality ; as, *greatest, reddest, brownest, least, last, worst*.

REM. 1. Some adjectives are always in the *superlative* degree, because they express the highest quality and extent of things without change or form ; as, *boundless, ceaseless, infinite, chief, extreme, supreme, unparalleled, unlimited, omnipotent, all-wise, eternal*, etc.

REM. 2. Numeral, proper, definite, indefinite and distributive adjectives are incomparable.

REM. 3. Adjectives denoting the quality of figures abstractly considered, are not susceptible of comparison, but in common parlance, they are used comparatively ; as, *straight, true, square, round, full, circular, holy*. It is often said, this stick is *straighter* than that ; this tumbler is *fuller* than that ; this figure is *more circular, oblong* or *square* than that. In these expressions, it is not meant that the abstract quality of the figure is increased, but that there is an approximation to it.

§ 85. The *indefinite* degree, is formed by annexing *ish* to the simple form of the word ; as, *yellow, yellowish ; red, reddish ; brown, brownish*, etc.

§ 86. The *comparative* is formed by annexing *r* to the positive adjective ending with *e* ; as, *white, whiter ; close, closer* ; and *er*, when it ends with a consonant ; as, *sweet, sweeter ; small, smaller*.

§ 87. The *superlative* degree is formed by annexing *st* to the adjectives ending with *e* ; as, *wise, wisest ; close, closest ; wide, widest* ; and *est*, when they end with a consonant ; as, *reddest, smallest, greatest*, etc.

§ 88. Adjectives are sometimes compared by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* ; as, *more wise, most wise ; less wise, least wise ; less lovely, least lovely*, etc.

REM. 1. Adjectives of more than one syllable are usually compared by adverbs ; as *glorious, more glorious, most glorious ; gracious, more gracious, most gracious* ; except dissyllables ending with *y* mute ; as, *happy, happier, happiest*.

REM. 2. When an adjective ends with *y* preceded by a consonant, *i* is substituted for it, before *er* and *est* ; as, *mighty, mightier, mightiest*.

§ 89. A few adjectives express the degrees of comparison by irregular terminations ; as,

Good,	better,	best.
	former,	first.
Evil or bad,	worse,	worst.
Little,	less,	least.
Near,	nearer,	nearest and next.
Much or many,	more,	most.
Late,	later,	latest or last.
Old,	older or elder,	oldest or eldest.

REM. 1. The words *much*, *more* and *most* ; *little*, *less* and *least*, are adjectives only when they are prefixed to nouns ; as, *much labor* ; *more labor* ; *most labor* ; *little study* ; *less study* ; *least study*.

REM. 2. When the definite article *the* is prefixed to an adjective without a noun, the adjective usually becomes a noun, and should be parsed as such ; as, "Providence rewards *the good*, and punishes *the bad*." Sometimes adjectives are used as nouns without the article ; as, *little* can be done on the present occasion ; *both* have gone to the city.

REM. 3. The following adjectives have more than one superlative, and some of them more than one comparative ; as,

Out,	outer or utter,	outermost or utmost or uttermost.
In,	inner,	inmost or innermost.
Up,	upper,	uppermost or upmost.
Hind,	hinder,	hindmost or hindermost.
Low,	lower	lowest or lowermost.
Far or forth,	farther or further,	farthest or furthest or foremost or furthermost.

REM. 4. The following adjectives have no comparative ; as,

South,	southmost	Mid,	midmost
North,	northmost	Front,	frontmost
Northern,	northernmost	Rear,	rearmost
Southern,	southernmost	Head,	headmost
Eastern,	easternmost	Down,	downmost
Western,	westernmost	Side,	sidemost.

REM. 5. The following have no *positive* ; as,

Nether,	nethermost	Under,	undermost
Hither,	hithermost	After,	aftermost.

REM. 6. Aside from the degrees of comparison, adjectives are modified in a variety of ways by other words ; as, *very* far ; *extremely* studious ; *exceedingly* penurious ; *far* distant ; *extremely* wise ; *much* learned. Most of the modifiers in *ly*, are sometimes thus used.

REM. 7. Adjectives of the comparative degree, admit the con-

junction *than* to commence the last part of the comparison ; as, “ virtue is better *than* riches ;” except, *after* and *hither* ; *outer* or *utter* ; *former* and *latter* or *hinder* ; *inner* and *outer* ; *upper* and *under* or *nether* ; *major* and *minor* ; *senior*, *prior* and *ulterior* ; *anterior* and *posterior* ; *interior* and *exterior* ; *superior* and *inferior*.

REM. 8. Nouns are often used as adjectives, but are not comparable ; as, *meadow* ground ; *wine* cask ; *sea* fish ; *iron* wedge ; *cane* field.

REM. 9. Many irregular adjectives are joined in composition with other words, and are used as nouns, adverbs or prepositions, as their construction in sentences requires ; as, *beforehand*, *front-room*, *head-ache*, *rear-rank*, *inland*, *after-ages*, *mid-ship*, *left-handedness*, *right-handedness*, *bottom lands*, *out-post*, *high-land*, *low-land*, *upland*, *downhill*.

REM. 10. *Proper* and *numeral* adjectives are never compared.

REM. 11. *Own* is an *intensive* adjective.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

“Fragrant flower.”

What part of speech is *fragrant* ? § 68. Why ? 68. What kind of an adjective is it ? § 71. Why common ? § 71. What degree of comparison ? § 82. Why ? § 82. To what does it belong ? *Flowers*.

“Happier life.”

What part of speech is *happier* ? § 68. Why ? § 68. What degree of comparison ? § 86. Why ? § 86.

“Sweetest increase.”

What part of speech is *sweetest* ? § 68. Why ? § 68. What degree of comparison ? § 87. Why ? § 87. *Parse the articles, nouns, and adjectives in the following examples.*

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

A better¹ world² is above. The noblest prospect is before us. An obedient son honors his father. An affectionate parent cherishes his children.³ Monday⁴ is past. January is the first month in the year.⁵ Christmas occurs the twenty-fifth⁶ of November. This⁷ apple is good, that⁷ is bad. Such⁸ people are well instructed. The Newtonian⁹ system is admired by many. A sea-faring¹⁰ life is dangerous. Two¹¹ persons were seen at

¹ § 89. ² § 61. ³ § 66. ⁴ § 36. ⁵ § 66. ⁶ § 73, and Rem. 1. ⁷ § 74. ⁸ § 76. ⁹ § 72. ¹⁰ § 77. ¹¹ § 73, and Rem. 2.

my door. Each¹ man must account for himself. The apple is reddish.² This is a charming³ boy.

QUESTIONS—*First Course.*

What is an adjective? How are adjectives varied? How many classes of adjectives are there? Name them. Define a common adjective; a proper adjective; a numeral adjective; a definite adjective; a distributive adjective; an indefinite adjective; a compound adjective; a participial adjective. How are the qualities of adjectives expressed? How many degrees of comparison are there? What does the indefinite degree express? the positive? the comparative? the superlative? How is the indefinite degree formed? the comparative? the superlative? How are adjectives sometimes compared? Compare the adjectives under § 89.

QUESTIONS—*Second Course.*

How many classes of numeral adjectives are there? Define ordinal; cardinal. What do *this*, *these* and *latter* denote? *that*, *those* and *former*? Repeat Rem. 1, § 76. What are these adjectives called by some grammarians? State objections to this. Can compound adjective pronouns be compared? Give the substance of Rem. 1, § 80. What other method of distinguishing the indefinite degree of comparison? Why are some adjectives always in the superlative degree? What adjectives are not compared? Are adjectives denoting qualities of figures ever compared? How are adjectives of more than one syllable usually compared? When the adjective ends with *y* preceded by a consonant, how is the comparison made? When are *much*, *more*, *most*, *little*, *less* and *least* adjectives? When the definite article *the* is prefixed to an adjective without a noun, what is the adjective? Are adjectives ever modified in any other way, than by degrees of comparison? When do adjectives of the comparative degree admit of the conjunction *than*? Are nouns, used as adjectives, comparable? Are irregular adjectives ever joined in composition? Are proper and numeral adjectives ever compared? What is *own*?

PRONOUNS.

§ 90. A pronoun is a word that supplies the place of a noun, and is used to prevent its too frequent repe-

¹ § 75. ² § 81. ³ § 78.

tion ; as, "The man is happy ; *he* is benevolent ; *he* is useful."

§ 91. A pronoun often supplies the place of preceding sentences ; as, "The Jews, *it* is well known, were at this time under the dominion of the Romans."

Here *it* denotes the whole sentence except the clause *is well known*.

"Shall worldly glory, impotent and vain,
That fluctuates like the billows of the main ;
Shall this with more respect thy bosom move,
Than zeal for crowns that never fade above ?
Avert *it* heaven !" — *Poole's Tasso*.

Here the four preceding lines are represented by *it*.

§ 92. The noun that is represented by a pronoun usually precedes it, and is called the antecedent.

REM. 1. The pronoun *it*, often precedes the clause or sentence it represents, and hence it is called an *inceptive* pronoun ; as, "*It* is remarkable, that the philosopher Seneca makes use of the same argument." Here the last clause of the sentence is represented by *it*.

REM. 2. *It* also begins a sentence when the name of a *person*, either of the masculine or feminine gender, or of the singular or plural number succeeds the verb ; as, "*It* was *Mary* who bedewed the Saviour's feet with her tears."

REM. 3. In like manner *it* begins a sentence when the verb is followed by masculine or feminine pronouns either of the singular or plural number or of either person ; as, "*It* was *they* who executed the fearful deed."

§ 93. The noun that is represented by an interrogative pronoun, is contained in the answer to the question, expressed or implied ; as, "*Whose* book is this ? — *John's*." "*Who* can find out the Almighty unto perfection ?"

REM. 1. Nouns denoted by the pronouns *I* and *thou*, and their various modifications, are generally not expressed, because the speaker represented by *I* and *we* and the person addressed by *thou* and *ye* or *you*, are always present or supposed to be present.

REM. 2. When *I* and the name of the person are both ex-

pressed, the pronoun precedes the noun. The same is true in respect to the pronoun *we*, *ye* or *you*.

REM. 3. In the singular, *thou* is used in the solemn style, and *you* in common parlance. In the plural, *ye* is used in the grave style, and *you* in familiar style.

REM. 4. In common parlance *you* is used in the singular as well as in the plural, and when it represents a singular noun, the verb with which it agrees, must have the plural form.

REM. 5. *He*, *she* and *they* and their different modifications, are sometimes used indefinitely; as, "*He* is wise who lives virtuously."

REM. 6. The *personal* and *interrogative* pronouns are sometimes used as antecedents to the relatives *who* and *that*; as, "*He* that hath ears to hear, let him hear."

§ 94. There are three kinds of pronouns; the *personal*, the *relative* and the *interrogative*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§ 95. *Personal* pronouns denote by their form the number and person of the nouns they represent.

§ 96. The *personal* pronouns are divided into *simple* and *compound*.

§ 97. There are five simple personal pronouns, *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and also their plurals, *we*, *ye* or *you* and *they*. *He* denotes the masculine gender, *she*, the feminine, *it*, the neuter. The others have the same gender as their antecedents. *I* is the first person, *thou* is the second, *he*, *she* or *it* is the third.

§ 98. There is an equal number of compound pronouns, *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *herself* and *itself*. Their plurals are, *ourselves*, *yourselves* and *themselves*.

REM. The compound pronouns sometimes succeed the simple pronouns to render them more emphatic; as, *I myself* am free from the suspicion of crime; *Thou thyself*; *We ourselves*; *They themselves*.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 99. Relative pronouns relate to an antecedent without denoting by their forms its number or person.

REM. The gender and number of relative pronouns are the same as those of their antecedents.

§ 100. There are two kinds of relative pronouns ; viz., *simple* and *compound*.

§ 101. The *simple* relatives are *who*, *which* and *that*.

§ 102. *Who* represents only masculine and feminine nouns, except when inanimate objects are personified.

REM. 1. *Who* should not be applied to children. It is improper to say, bring me the child *who* is so beautiful. *That* should be used instead of *who*.

§ 103. *Which* in modern use, is usually applied to animals or things. In the scriptures, however, it is applied to persons.

REM. 1. When we wish to distinguish one person from two or more, *which* may be used as referring to persons ; as, “ *Which* of the two brothers are graduates ? ” “ *Which* of them is he ? ”

REM. 2. *Whether* is sometimes used for *which* in the same construction ; as, “ *Whether* of them did the will of his father ? ” Matt. 21 : 31.

REM. 3. *Which* is often prefixed to nouns denoting persons or things, as interrogative adjectives ; as, “ *Which* man do you refer to ? ” “ *Which* interest most claims our attention ? ”

REM. 4. *Which* is often a substitute for a sentence or a part of a sentence ; as, “ If there could be any other way of showing how men may come to a universal agreement in the things they do consent in, *which* I presume may be done. ” “ We shall find the reasons of it to be the *end of language*, *which* being to communicate thoughts. ” In the former examples, *which* refers to all that precedes it as an antecedent ; and in the latter, *which* refers only to the phrase *end of language* as its antecedent.

§ 104. *That* is applicable either to persons or things, and has only two cases, the *nominative* and *objective*.

REM. 1. *That* is used for four parts of speech, *relative pronoun*, *definite pronoun*, *definite adjective* and *conjunction*. The last three are treated of in their appropriate places.

REM. 2. *That* is a relative when its place may be supplied by *who*, *whom* or *which*.

REM. 3. In the following examples, the use of *that* is preferable to *who*, *whom* or *which*.

1. After the interrogatives *who* and *which*, to prevent their too frequent repetition; as, "Who *that* is a patriot can think lightly of the soil *that* gave him birth?"

2. After an adjective in the superlative degree; as, "Cataline's followers were *the most corrupt that* could be found at Rome."

3. After *same*; as, "This is the *same* lesson *that* you endeavored to learn last week."

4. After two or more antecedents of different genders connected by the copulative *and*; as, "The *woman* and the *estate that* became his portion, were too much for his moderation."

5. After a collective noun as an antecedent, when it has no definite reference to individuals; as, "The multitude *that* assembled yesterday, will not be assembled again."

REM. 4. *As*, generally used as a conjunction, as an adverb or a connective adverb, should be construed as a relative pronoun after *such* and *same* when they can be changed into *who*, *whom*, *which* or *that*, and the terms *such* and *same* which define its antecedents, may be changed into *the*, *that* or *those*, without altering the sense; as, "Participles have the *same* government *as* the verbs from which they are derived." "Send him *such* books *as* will please him." "We have been accustomed to repose on its veracity with *such* humble confidence *as* surprises curiosity." "The malcontents made *such* demands *as* none but a tyrant could refuse."

REM. 5. In the preceding examples some grammarians deem it better in the example, "Send him such books as will please him," that an ellipsis like the following should be adopted; "Send him *such* books as *those books are which* will please him." This ellipsis, however, is not necessary to make the meaning plain and therefore should not be adopted.

REM. 6. When *which* is in the objective case it always precedes the verb that governs it.

REM. 7. *As* is sometimes a relative pronoun when it is not preceded by *such* or *same*, but refers to a sentence or part of a sentence, as an antecedent; as, "I am a linen draper bold, *as* you and all the world doth know."

REM. 8. *As* sometimes supplies the place of *such*, or *such as*; as,

"From whence might contests spring and mutual rage,
As would the camp in civil broils engage."

§ 105. The *compound relative pronouns* are *what*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whoever* and *whosoever*, *which-ever* and *whichsoever*.

COMPOUND RELATIVES.

§ 106. *What* is usually a compound relative, including both the antecedent and the relative, and is equivalent to *that which*; as, "Give me *what* I want; i. e. *that which* or *the thing which* I want. Here *that* stands for *the thing*, and *which* is a relative pronoun and refers to it as its antecedent. *That* is parsed as a noun, and *which* as a relative pronoun.

REM. 1. *What* is sometimes used in the plural and represents *those which*; as, "But let us consider his faults, or *what* may appear such," or *those which* may appear such.

REM. 2. *What* is sometimes equivalent to a definite adjective *that* or *those* and the relative *who* or *which*, according as the sense requires; as, "*what* virtue we possessed is lost;" i. e. *that* virtue *which* we possessed is lost. In such a construction, a noun follows *what*, with which the definite adjective always agrees.

REM. 3. *What* is often used as an indefinite adjective; as, "It is not material *what* names are assigned to them." When it is used in this construction in a question, it is an interrogative adjective; as, "*what* man is that?"

REM. 4. *What* is occasionally used as an interjection; as, "*What!* Enslave a Roman!" "*What!* Shall we yield up tamely our dearest rights?"

REM. 5. "*What* is used by the poets, preceding a noun, for *that* or *that which*, but its place cannot be supplied by these words, without a noun between them;" as,

"*What* time withdrew his cheerful light,
And sought the sable caverns of the night."

REM. 6. *What* is sometimes used as an adverb; and when so used, it means *how*, *in what respects*, or partly; as, "*What* with bad lodging and barbarous lodging, they could hardly sleep all the time of their stay." "*What* shall it profit a man, if he shall gain the whole world, and lose his own soul?"—Mark 8: 36. "The year before he had so used the matter, that *what* by force, *what* by policy, he had taken from the Christians' abode thirty small castles."—*Knowles*.

REM. 7. *Whatever* and *whatsoever* have essentially the same meaning as *what*; and when used as compound relatives, are equivalent to *any* or *every thing which*; as, "*whatever* we do, should be well done," i. e. *any* or *every thing* we do, should be well done. The antecedent in this case is the indefinite adjective *any* or *every*, and *thing*; and *which* is the relative.

REM. 8. *Whoever*, *whoso*, and *whosoever* are sometimes used as compound relatives and equivalent to *any* or *every person who*; as, "*Whoever*, *whoso* or *whosoever* takes an oath is bound by it;" i. e. *any* or *every person who*, etc.

REM. 9. *Whichever* and *whichsoever* are not thus analyzed.

REM. 10. In the analysis of these words, the adverbs are not regarded.

REM. 11. *Whatever* and *whatsoever*, *whichever* and *whichsoever*, like *what*, are sometimes equivalent to the relative *who* or *which* and the definite article *the*, or the definite adjectives *that* or *those*; as, "In *whatever* character Butler was admitted, is unknown; give him what name you choose;" i. e. *the* or *that* character in which Butler was, etc. "Nature's care endows *whatever* happy man will deign to use her treasures;" i. e. nature's care endows *the* or *that* happy man *who* will deign, etc. "Let him take *whichever* course he will;" i. e. let him take *the* or *that* course *which* he will.

REM. 12. *Who*, *whoever*, *whoso*, *whosoever*, *whatever* and *whatsoever*, are sometimes indefinite pronouns; as, "I know *who* is coming." Here *who* means *what person*. "The cause is unjust, *whoever* may pursue it;" i. e. *whatever person* may pursue it. "*Whatever* gravity may be, it is plain that it acts every moment of time;" i. e. *whatever thing* gravity may be, etc.

REM. 13. *Whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, are sometimes indefinite adjectives; as, "*Whichever* way you take, you will be pursued;" *whichever* means the same as *whichsoever*. "Finally, brethren, *whatsoever* things are true, *whatsoever* things are honest, *whatsoever* things are just, *whatsoever* things are lovely, *whatsoever* things are of good report." Phil. 4: 8.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 107. *Interrogative pronouns* are used to ask questions and relate to some noun, pronoun, sentence or part of a sentence contained in the answer to the question, as their subsequents; as, Who is he? *John*.

REMARK. The *noun*, *pronoun*, *sentence* or *part* of a sentence is called the *subsequent* because it follows the interrogative.

§ 108. The *interrogative* pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, *whose* and *whom*.

REMARK. *What* is used only in the nominative and objective cases ; *who* and *which* are declined as other pronouns.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

§ 109. *Indefinite pronouns* are such as denote persons or things generally, without indicating a particular individual.

§ 110. The *indefinite* pronouns are *some*, *one*, *any*, *other*, *another*, *all*, *such*, *none*, *both* and *same*.

REM. 1. The indefinite pronouns are not modified like personal pronouns by declension, number and person ; except *one*, *other* and *another*. *One* is used in the possessive case ; as, “*One’s* person is to be protected by law.” It is also used in the plural ; as, “I have commanded my sanctified *ones*, and I have called my mighty *ones*.” “The great *ones* of the earth.”

REM. 2. *Other* is used in both numbers, and is regularly declined. It is often opposed to *one* ; as, “All rational or deductive evidence is derived from *one* or the *other* of these two sources.” *Another* is composed of the indefinite article *an*, which etymologically means *one* and *other*, and denotes *one other*. It is often used as a substitute ; as, “Let *another* praise thee, and not thine own mouth.” It sometimes is used in the possessive case ; as, “Attend to thine own concerns and not to *another’s*.” *One* and *other* when contrasted sometimes represent plural nouns, and requires a plural verb ; as, “The reason why the *one* are ordinarily taken for real qualities, and the *other* only for bare powers, seems to be.”—*Locke*.

REM. 3. *One another* and *each other* are reciprocal indefinite pronouns, and answer to the Greek reciprocal *allelon*.

REM. 4. *One* and *another* are used together to distribute a plural number collectively denoted by an antecedent noun or pronoun among the several individuals constituting that number ; as, “Let *us* love *one another*.” “Many men contend with *one another*, without any real cause.”

REM. 5. *Each* and *other* are generally used when only two

persons or things are referred to ; as, David and Jonathan loved *each other* with uncommon affection." Sometimes, however, they refer to more than two individuals, according to good writers.

REM. 6. *All* is often used as a substitute either in the singular or plural number ; as, "*All* that came into the tent, and *all* that is in the tent, shall be unclean seven days." Num. 19: 14.

REM. 7. *Such* is frequently used as a substitute, and in the singular or plural number ; as, "Objects of importance must be portrayed by objects of importance ; *such* as have grace, by things graceful."—*Camp. Rhet.* "Jubal was the father of *such* as dwelt in tents."

REM. 8. *None* is often used as a substitute and is equivalent to the Latin term *nequis*, i. e. *no one*. It is used by good writers both in the singular and plural ; as, "*None* (i. e. *no person*) is so deaf as he that will not hear ;" "Ye shall lie down, and *none* (i. e. *no person* or *persons*) shall make you afraid." Lev. 26: 6. "*None* (i. e. *no productions*) of their productions are extant."

REM. 9. *One* and its plural, like personal pronouns, often represent nouns definitely ; as, "Imperfect articulations come not so much from bad *organs*, as from the abuse of good *ones*."

REM. 10. *Both* is sometimes used as a substitute for nouns, sentences, parts of sentences ; as, "Abraham took sheep and oxen and gave them to Abimelech, and *both* of them made a covenant." Gen. 21: 27. Here *both* represents Abraham and Abimelech. "He will not bear *the loss of his rank*, because he can bear *the loss of his estate*, but he will bear *both* because he has prepared for *both*." Here *both* represents the two parts of sentences, *the loss of his rank* and *the loss of his estate*."

REM. 11. *Same* is often used as a substitute ; as, "For *brave* and *generous* ever are the *same*." "Nothing appears so clearly an object of the mind or intellect only, as the future does, since we can find no place for its existence any where else. Not but the *same*, if we consider, is equally true of the *past*." Here *same* refers to all that precedes it in the quotation.

DEFINITE PRONOUNS.

§ 111. *Definite pronouns* are such as specify what object is meant.

§ 112. The definite pronouns are *this*, *that*, *these* and *those*, *former* and *latter*. *This*, *these* and *latter*

refer to the latter of two nouns; *that*, *those* and *former* to the former; as,

"Self-love and reason to one end aspire,
Pain their aversion, pleasure their desire;
But greedy *that* (i. e. self-love) its object would devour,
This (i. e. reason) taste the honey and not wound the flower."—*Pope*.

"Sublimity and vehemence are often confounded. The *latter* (*vehemence*) being considered a species of the *former* (*sublimity*)." —*Camp. Rhet.*

REM. 1. *Former* and *latter* are sometimes used in the possessive case; as, "It was happy for the state that Fabius continued in the command; the former's phlegm was a check upon the latter's vivacity."

REM. 2. The definite pronouns are sometimes substitutes for sentences; as,

"*Forgive me my foul murder!*
That cannot be."—*Shakspeare*.

REM. 3. The definite pronouns *that* and *those* are often used for the definite article and a noun; as, "His life is *that* (i. e. the life) of a student." "The powers of the mind like *those* (i. e. the powers) of the body, are strengthened by exercise." Here *that* and *those* represent the preceding nouns.

DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 113. *Distributive pronouns* denote each one of a number, separately considered.

§ 114. The distributive pronouns are *each*, *every*, *either* and *neither*; as, "*each* of his brothers is in a favorable situation." "I have not heard *either* of them." "I have seen *neither* of them."

REM. 1. *Each* may relate to two or more persons or things, and denotes each one of them separately from the others; as, "The prince had a body-guard of a thousand men, *each* of whom was six feet high." "The four beasts had *each* of them six wings."

REM. 2. *Every* denotes every one of a number separately, and is generally used as a distributive adjective followed by a noun or the indefinite pronoun *one* to which it belongs. In legal style, however, it is sometimes used as a substitute; as, "*all* and *every* of them;" *every* the causes and conditions.

REM. 3. *Every* is sometimes separated from its noun or pronoun by the definite article *the* and an adjective in the superlative degree ; as, “*Every the least variation.*”—*Locke*.

REM. 4. *Either* may be used as a distributive pronoun, adjective or conjunction, according to its constructive meaning. It is used as a pronoun ; as, “*I shall be satisfied with either of them.*” “*Either of these books is instructive.*” For its use as a distributive adjective and conjunction, see § 75 and § 186.

REM. 5. “*Either* is sometimes used for *each* ; as, “*Two thieves were crucified, one on either side.*”

REM. 6. *Neither* means *not either*, from the Saxon word *ne-either*. This word is also used as a pronoun, adjective, or conjunction. It is used as a pronoun ; as, “*Neither of my friends was there.*” “*Neither of the offices will suit the candidates.*”

§ 115. Pronouns, like nouns, have four modifications, *person, number, gender and case*.

REMARK 1. These properties of personal pronouns are generally known by their forms, but the relative and interrogative pronouns are determined only by referring to their antecedents or subsequents.

REM. 2. Pronouns of the first and second person, are masculine, feminine and neuter, according to the gender of the objects they represent. It has been said by some very respectable grammarians that gender is applicable only to the third person singular, *he, she, it*. But this is obviously incorrect. *I, thou, you, we, they*, etc., may represent masculine, feminine or neuter nouns, and gender is just as applicable to them as to those which denote their gender by their forms ; as, *he, she, it*. The pronouns of the first person by personification, represent inanimate objects ; as,

“Where is thy true treasure ? Gold says, not in *me* ;
And not in *me*, the diamond. Gold is poor.”—*Young*.

“The depth saith, it is not in *me* ; and the sea saith, it is not with *me*.” Job 28: 14.

DECLENSION ON PRONOUNS.

§ 116. The declension of a pronoun consists in a proper arrangement of its numbers and cases. The simple personal pronouns are thus declined :

First Person.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> I,	<i>Nom.</i> we,
<i>Poss.</i> My or mine,	<i>Poss.</i> our or ours,
<i>Obj.</i> Me.	<i>Obj.</i> us.

Second Person.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> thou,	<i>Nom.</i> ye or you,
<i>Poss.</i> thy or thine,	<i>Poss.</i> you or yours,
<i>Obj.</i> thee.	<i>Obj.</i> you.

Third Person.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> he, she, it,	<i>Nom.</i> they,
<i>Poss.</i> his, her, hers, its,	<i>Poss.</i> their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i> him, her, it.	<i>Obj.</i> them.

REMARK 1. Most of the simple pronouns have two forms in the possessive case ; as, *my*, *mine* ; *thy*, *thine* ; *her*, *hers* ; *our*, *ours* ; *your*, *yours* ; *their*, *theirs*. *My*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your* and *their*, are always followed by a noun expressed, by which they are governed. *Mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours* and *theirs* are substitutes for two words, or compound pronouns ; as, “*These* return so much better out of your hands, than they went from *mine* ;” i. e. *my hands*. Here *mine* is used for *my* and *hands*, and is construed as a pronoun in the possessive case, and governed by *hands* implied, and *hands* in the objective case after *from*. “Wherefore leave your forests of beasts for *ours* (*our forest*) of brutes, called men.” “My sword and *yours* (*your sword*,) are kin.”—*Shakspeare*. “*Yours* (*your letter*) of the 26th Oct., I have received, as I have always done *yours* (*your letters*) with no little satisfaction.”—*Wicherley* to *Pope*. “The reason is, that his subject is generally things ; *theirs* (*their subject*) on the contrary, is persons.”—*Camp. Rhet.*

REM. 2. “*Mine* and *thine* were formerly used before all words beginning with a vowel sound, and *my* and *thy* before others.” “It was thou, a man of *mine* equal, *my* guide and *mine* acquaintance.”—*Psalm*. But this practice is now obsolete or peculiar to the poets, and the Scriptures ; as,

“Time writes no wrinkles on *thine* azure brow.”—*Byron*.

REM. 3. In ancient times, *he*, *his* and *him*, were applied to things neuter. In our translation of the Bible, the pronoun *it* is

employed in the nominative and the objective ; but *his* is retained in the possessive and neuter ; as, "Look not thou upon the wine when *it* is red, when *it* giveth *his* color in the cup, when it moveth *itself* aright." Prov. 23: 31. "*Its* is not found in the Bible except by misprint."

REM. 4. *Ye* is sometimes in the objective case.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§ 117. The *compound* personal pronouns are used only in the nominative and objective cases ; and the singular number is formed annexing the noun *self* to the personal pronouns *my*, *thy*, *your*, *her*, *him* and *it* ; and the plural by annexing *selves* to *our*, *your* and *them*.

DECLENSION OF COMPOUND PRONOUNS.

<i>First Person.</i>		<i>Second Person.</i>	
Sing.	Plural.	Sing.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> myself,	ourselves,	<i>Nom.</i> thyself, yourselves,	
<i>Poss.</i> ———	———	<i>Poss.</i> ———	———
<i>Obj.</i> myself,	ourselves.	<i>Obj.</i> thyself, yourselves.	

Third Person.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> himself, herself, itself,	themselves,
<i>Poss.</i> ——— ——— ———	———
<i>Obj.</i> himself, herself, itself,	themselves.

REMARK 1. *Self* renders a personal pronoun more emphatic, when it is annexed to *it*. In the Saxon *it* was annexed to all the cases ; as, *he-self*, *his-self*, *himself* ; in the English language, however, it is annexed only to the nominative and objective. When an adjective is prefixed to *self*, the pronouns are written separate in the possessive case ; as, "*My* noble self," "*His* own self," "*Their* own selves."

REM. 2. *Self* is sometimes annexed to the plural pronoun *your*, when a single person is addressed ; as, "My dear son, you *yourself* know well my desire that your character may be unblemished."

REM. 3. *Self* is sometimes prefixed to a noun, and thus forms a compound noun ; as, *self-love*, *self-interest*.

§ 118. DECLENSION OF RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Simple Relatives.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> who,	who,	<i>Nom.</i> which,	which,
<i>Poss.</i> whose,	whose,	<i>Poss.</i> whose,	whose,
<i>Obj.</i> whom,	whom.	<i>Obj.</i> which,	which.

REM. 1. That *whose* may be the possessive case of *which*, and is applicable to things as well as persons, is supported by abundant authority; as, "This is one of the *most* clear characteristics of its being a religion *whose* origin is divine."—*Blair*.

—— "And the fruit
Of that forbidden *tree whose* mortal taste
Brought death."—*Milton*.

—— "Pure the joy without alloy,
Whose very rapture is tranquility."

"The lights and shades *whose* well accorded strife,
Gives all the strength and color of our life."—*Pope*.

"Is there any other doctrine *whose* followers are punished."

Compound Relatives.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> what,	what,	<i>Nom.</i> whoever,	whoever,
<i>Poss.</i> —	—	<i>Poss.</i> whosoever,	whosoever,
<i>Obj.</i> what,	what.	<i>Obj.</i> whomever,	whomever.
Singular.	Plural.		
<i>Nom.</i> whosoever,	whosoever,		
<i>Poss.</i> whosesoever,	whosesoever,		
<i>Obj.</i> whomsoever,	whomsoever.		

REM. *Whatever* and *whatsoever*, *whichever* and *whichsoever*, are used in both numbers, but only in the nominative and objective cases, their form remaining the same.

§ 119. The indefinite pronouns, *other* and *one*, are thus declined :

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> other,	others,	<i>Nom.</i> one,	ones,
<i>Poss.</i> other's,	others',	<i>Poss.</i> one's,	ones',
<i>Obj.</i> other,	others.	<i>Obj.</i> one,	ones.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

"He is a good man."

What part of speech is *he*? § 90. Why? § 90. Why personal? § 95. What person is it? § 49. Of what number is it? § 52. Of what gender is it? § 56. Why? § 56. What case? § 61. Why the nominative? § 61. Of what verb is it the subject? *Is*. Why the subject of *is*? § 61, Rem. 2. [*The article, adjective and noun in this example, the pupil may parse as he has been taught in the previous lessons.*]

"He is happy *who* lives virtuously."

Of what part of speech is *who*? § 90. Why? § 90. What kind? § 99. Why? § 99. Of what number and person? § 99, Rem. 1. Why third person, singular number? § 99, Rem. 1. What case? § 61. Decline *who*. § 118. Why the nominative? § 61. Of what verb is it the subject? *Lives*. Why the subject of *lives*? § 61, Rem. 1.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

We¹ are dependent on each other's² assistance. Who³ is there that⁴ can subsist by himself⁵? Of whom⁶ were the articles bought? I⁷ walk. Thou⁸ ridest. We read. You study. It is made. This is the knowledge which⁹ I desire. Give me what¹⁰ you please. James did whatever¹¹ he wished to do. What¹² man is that? Which¹³ course will you pursue? Whoever¹⁴ has made extensive observation, knows that the human heart is very deceitful. Which¹⁵ of them will you take? His efforts will be in vain whatsoever¹⁶ means he adopts. Each¹⁷ of the family is well trained. Either¹⁷ of these examples is exceptionable. No one's¹⁸ interest is concerned except mine. Love one another.¹⁹

QUESTIONS—First Course.

What is a pronoun? Do pronouns ever supply the place of sentences? Where is the noun placed which is represented by a pronoun, and what is it called? Where is the noun represented by an interrogative pronoun, contained? How many

¹ § 90, 95 and 116. ² § 110, Rem. 2; 119, 59, 62. ³ § 107.
⁴ § 104. ⁵ § 98 and 117. ⁶ § 118, 102 and 66. ⁷ § 90 and 116.
⁸ § 90 and 116. ⁹ § 101. ¹⁰ § 105 and 106. ¹¹ § 105, R. 7.
¹² § 106, R. 3. ¹³ § 103, R. 3. ¹⁴ § 106, R. 8. ¹⁵ § 103, R. 1.
¹⁶ § 106, R. 11. ¹⁷ § 113. ¹⁸ § 110, R. 1. ¹⁹ § 110, R. 3.

kinds of pronouns are there? Define a personal pronoun. How are personal pronouns divided? How many simple personal pronouns are there? Name them. How many compound pronouns? What is a relative pronoun? How many kinds? What are the simple relatives? What does *who* represent? How is *which* applied? How is *that* applicable? What are the compound relative pronouns? Define *what*. What are interrogative pronouns? Name them. What are indefinite pronouns? Name them. What are definite pronouns? Repeat them. What do distributive pronouns denote? Name them. How are pronouns modified? In what does the declension of a pronoun consist? Decline *I. Thou. He. It.* How are compound personal pronouns used? How are the singular and plural numbers formed? Are simple and compound relatives ever declined? Decline *myself, thyself* and *himself*. Decline *who* and *which*. Decline *what. Whoever. Whosoever.* How are the indefinite pronouns *other* and *one* declined?

QUESTIONS—Second Course.

When *it* precedes a clause, what is it called? When does *it* begin a sentence? Why are not the nouns *I, thou*, etc. expressed? Repeat Rem. 2, § 93. How are *thou* and *you* used in the singular? In the plural? In what number is *you* used in common parlance? How are *he* and *they* sometimes used? How are the personal and interrogative pronouns sometimes used? Why do the compound pronouns sometimes succeed the simple pronouns? Should *who* ever be applied to children? How is *which* used? Is *whether* ever used for *which*? When is *which* an interrogative adjective? Is *which* ever a substitute for a sentence? How many, and what parts of speech may *that* represent? When is *that* a relative? Mention the five examples in which *that* is preferable to *who*. When should *which* be construed as a relative pronoun? In these examples, how do some grammarians supply an ellipsis? When is *as* a relative pronoun? Does *as* ever supply the place of *such*? Is *what* used in the plural? When is *what* equivalent to *that* or *those*, and *who* or *which*? When is *what* an indefinite adjective pronoun? Is *what* ever an interjection? When is *what* used for *that* or *that which*? When is *what* an adverb? How are *what-ever* and *whatsoever* used? How are *whoever*, *whoso* and *whosoever* used? Is *whichever* thus analyzed? Are the adverbs regarded in the analysis of these words? To what are *whatever*,

whatsoever, *whichever* and *whichsoever* equivalent? Are *who*, *whoever*, *whoso*, *whosoever*, *whatever* and *whatsoever* ever indefinite pronouns? When are *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatever* and *whatsoever* indefinite adjectives? What is the meaning of *subsequent*? How are the indefinite pronouns modified? How is *other* used? What are *one-another* and *each-other*? When are *one* and *another* used together? How are *each* and *other* used? How is *all* used? *Such*? *None*? *One*? *Both*? *Some*? How are *former* and *latter* used? Are definite pronouns ever substituted for sentences? How are the pronouns *that* and *those* used? To what does *each* relate? What does *every* denote? How is *either* used? When is *either* used for *each*? What does *neither* mean? How are these properties of the personal pronouns known? How is the gender of pronouns the first and second persons regulated? How many forms have most of the simple personal pronouns? By what are *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your* and *their* always followed? How were *mine* and *thine* formerly used? How were *he*, *his* and *him* anciently applied? What effect does *self* have when annexed to a personal pronoun? When is *self* annexed to the plural pronoun *your*? Why may *whose* be in the possessive case, and applicable to things as well as persons? How are *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever* and *whichsoever* used?

VERBS.

§ 120. A verb is a word which affirms, commands, denies or interrogates something with respect to a person or thing.

§ 121. That of which something is affirmed, commanded, denied or interrogated is the *subject*; as, "*Man* is."

In this proposition, *man* is the subject, and the verb *is* affirms simply the existence of the subject *man*. "The boy *reads* his book." In this proposition, the verb affirms mental and physical action of the subject *boy* exerted upon the book. "The horse *runs*." Here an action is affirmed of the horse, which is not exerted on any object, but is limited to the subject. "The child *is instructed* by his parents." In this proposition, the verb *is instructed* affirms something received by the subject child from the parents. The same may be said of the subject when it represents inanimate objects. On these principles,

verbs are divided into four different classes according to their meaning.

§ 122. There are four kinds of verbs ; *active-transitive*, *active-intransitive*, *passive* and *neuter*.

§ 123. An *active-transitive verb*, expresses an action which terminates upon some person or thing as its object ; as, " Charles *studies his lessons*." " John *cultivates the fields*."

§ 124. An *active-intransitive verb*, expresses an action which is limited to the subject, and does not terminate upon a person or thing as its object ; as, " the horse *runs*," " the child *walks*."

REM. 1. The term *transitive* when applied to verbs denotes that the action expressed by the verb, passes from the subject to an object.

REM. 2. The term *intransitive* when applied to verbs denotes that the action expressed by the verb does not pass from the subject to the object.

§ 125. A *passive verb* expresses an action that is received by the subject ; as, " Henry *is instructed* by his teacher." " A dutiful child *is loved* by his parents."

§ 126. The *passive verb* is formed by annexing the perfect participles of an active transitive verb to the neuter verb *to be* ; as, " *am loved* ;" " *am persecuted* ;" " *to be persecuted*."

REM. 1. It is regular when it ends in *ed*.

REM. 2. The passive verb, present tense, is sometimes formed by annexing the present passive participle to the neuter verb ; as, " The house *is being built* ;" " He *is being loved*." This mode of expression does not accord with the style of the best writers.

§ 127. A *neuter verb* expresses a simple state of existence ; as, " John *sits* ;" " Man *is*."

REM. 1. When a present participle of an active transitive or intransitive verb, is annexed to the neuter verb *to be*, the combination forms an active transitive or intransitive verb, according as the verb from which the participle is derived is transitive or intransitive.

REM. 2. When the perfect participle of an active *intransitive* verb is annexed to the neuter verb *to be*, the combination forms an active intransitive verb, and not a neuter verb as some suppose ; as, “He *is come* ;” “He *is gone* ;” “The sun *is risen*.” Each of these expressions denote action.

REM. 3. The tenses of those verbs that are formed by annexing the present participle of an active verb to the verb *to be* are precise and definite, and by some are called the definite tenses. “I *was walking* at sunset.” Here *sunset* specifies the time of walking. The time is specified by terms that are closely connected in the sentence.

REM. 4. If *active* and *passive* verbs be compared, their meaning will be found to be essentially the same. “The passive voice may be substituted at pleasure for the active, by making the object of the active the subject of the passive, and placing the subject of the active after the verb with a preposition ; as, “John reads the book,” or, “the book is read by John.” The active form is used to direct the attention especially to the subject as the actor ; the passive chiefly to exhibit the object acted upon.

REM. 5. The agent of a passive verb and the object of an active verb, are often understood and left indefinite ; as, “*Virtue* is rewarded,” i. e. by *men* ; “*John* was studying,” i. e. his *lesson*.

REM. 6. Most active verbs may be used either *transitively* or *intransitively*.

REM. 7. Some verbs are used both as neuter and active transitive ; as, “Here on this couch I rest.” In this case, *rest* is a neuter verb denoting a simple state. “On the promises of the gospel I *rest* my hopes.” In this case, *rest* is an active transitive verb.

REM. 8. A passive verb may be known by its admitting after it in all cases, an agent expressed or understood.

§ 128. Verbs are divided with respect to their *form* into the classes,—*regular*, *irregular* and *defective*.

§ 129. A *regular verb* forms the imperfect tense, of the indicative mode and perfect participle by annexing to the simple form of the verb *ed*, or *d* only when the verb ends with *e* ; as, *love*, *loved*.

REM. 1. When a verb ends with *y* after a consonant, *y* is exchanged for *i*, and *ed* is annexed to form the imperfect tense and perfect participle ; as, *magnify*, *magnified*, *magnified*. But

when the *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is not changed, and *ed* is annexed as before; as, *delay, delayed, delayed*.

REM. 2. Monosyllables and verbs accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant after a single vowel, double the final consonant and add the *ed* to form the imperfect tense and perfect participle; as, *omit, omitted, omitted; quit, quitted, quitted*.

REM. 3. When an active verb is formed by the combination of the neuter verb *to be* and an active participle, it is regular or irregular according as the participle is derived from a regular or irregular verb.

REM. 4. Verbs are often compounded of a preposition and verb; as, *undergo, overlook, withstand*. In these compounds, the preposition is prefixed to the verb. But sometimes the preposition follows the verb, and affects it in the same manner as if it preceded it. Whether it precedes or follows it, if it gives a new meaning, the preposition forms a part of the verb; as, *to cast*, means to throw, but *cast up* means to compute. *Smile on; build up*, etc.

MODIFICATIONS OF VERBS.

§ 130. Besides voices, verbs have four modifications; *modes, tenses, number and person*.

MODES.

§ 131. *Mode* is the manner of representing an action or state expressed by the verb.

§ 132. There are four modes, the *indicative*, the *subjunctive*, the *infinitive* and the *imperative*.

REMARK. The *potential* mode is not adopted in this grammar, because all the verbs to which it is applied may, with perfect consistency, come under the definition of the indicative mode. In each of the propositions, *Charles rides*, and *Charles can ride*, an affirmation is made. The only difference between the two propositions consists in what is affirmed. In the proposition, *Charles rides*, a real action is affirmed; but in the proposition, *Charles can ride*, a possible action is affirmed. The difference then not referring to the affirmation, but to what is affirmed or to the different meaning of the verbs, should not be admitted as a principle on which a distinct mode may be formed. If so, there may be as many modes as there are different mean-

ings of verbs. Indeed, as each verb has a meaning that differs more or less from the signification of every other, on such a principle of forming modes, there would be as many modes as verbs; and instead of four modes, we should have forty-three thousand, which is the number of verbs in the English language, according to Lowth. The propositions, "He may study," "He might study," "He could study," affirms an *ability* or *power* to study. The expression, "He must study," affirms a *necessity* of studying; and as the indicative mode affirms or denies something, or asks a question, all the verbs to which the potential mode has been applied by most authors, may with the utmost propriety be arranged under it.

§ 133. The indicative mode affirms or denies something or asks a question; as, "The boy studies;" "He *may, can* or *might* study." "What is the greatest good?"

REMARK. The *Indicative* mode is known by the sense, or by its asking a question.

§ 134. The *subjunctive* mode denotes a doubtful or conditional action or state; as, "If I *go*;" "If I *may, can, might* or *must go*;" "If he *shall go*."

REMARK. Conjunctions that denote doubt; as, *if, though, unless, except*, etc., are signs of the subjunctive mode.

§ 135. The *infinitive* mode denotes an action or state generally, without limiting it to any person or thing as its subject or actor; as, *to run, to labor, to be*.

REM. *To* prefixed to the verb, is the sign of the *infinitive mode*.

§ 136. The *Imperative* mode is used to command, exhort, entreat, or permit; as, *depart* thou, *stay* thou, *go* in peace.

REM. 1. The imperative mode is known by its agreeing with *thou, ye* or *you* expressed or implied. The subject nominative of verbs in the imperative mode, is not generally expressed.

REM. 2. A verb in the imperative mode has only the present tense, though from its nature, it has reference to the future.

TENSES.

§ 138. Tenses denote the *times* of the action or state expressed by the verb.

REM. 1. A general division of time is the *present*, *past* and *future*; but in order to mark the times of actions or states more specifically, it is made to consist of six variations or *tenses*.

§ 139. The six tenses, are the *present*, the *imperfect*, the *perfect*, the *pluperfect*, the *first* and *second futures*.

REMARK. The divisions of the tenses has occasioned grammarians much trouble and perplexity. The one adopted in this treatise, is used in most grammars, and probably is as correct as it can be made without increasing very much their number. This, in a treatise on the elementary principles, I think is inexpedient; for thus the subject would become more complicated, and less adapted to the capacity of the young student. Moreover, innovations should be avoided unless they promise some real good. I shall comprehend in the remarks under the definition of each tense all that I should attempt to illustrate by a multiplication of the tenses.

§ 140. The *present tense* denotes a present action or state, or a possible, conditional or necessary present action or state; as, "The boy *reads*;" he *may*, *can*, *might*, *could*, *would* or *should read*. "If he *reads*;" if he *can*, *might*, *could*, *would* or *should read*; "James *must study*."

REM 1. The above definition is given to it, because it suits not only the meaning of verbs in the indicative, but also those in the other modes. The definitions, usually, are suited only to the meaning of verbs in the indicative mode. In the proposition, "The boy *reads*," a positive action is affirmed by the verb *reads*. But if we prefix to the same verb the auxiliary *can*, a widely different meaning is expressed. Not a *positive*, but a *possible* action is denoted. The proposition does not affirm that the boy actually *reads*, but that *he is able*, or, that it *is possible* for him *to read*. So in the proposition, *I am*, a real state is affirmed; but in the sentence, *I can*, *might*, *could*, *would* or *should be*, not a *real* but a *possible* state is declared. The subjunctive mode does not affirm a positive action or state, but simply a conditional or supposed action or state, and therefore the common definition of the present tense is not suited to a verb of this mode. "James *would have excelled* Charles in knowledge, if he *had been placed* in equally favorable circumstances." In this sentence,

the last verb *had been placed* denotes a conditional action. Substitute *had been* for *had been placed*, and there will be expressed a conditional state. William must *obey* wholesome rules. Here the auxiliary gives to the verb *obey* a meaning of *necessity*. For such considerations the terms *possible*, *conditional* and *necessary* are given in the definition of the present tense. The same terms for the same reasons, may be included in the definition of the imperfect, and the term *conditional* in the perfect, pluperfect, first and second futures.

REM. 2. The present tense, sometimes denotes a specific time of action or state which corresponds with the time of another action or state; as, *I am writing*, while you *are studying*.

REM. 3. The present tense often denotes general facts, truths, habits and customary actions as existing without any reference to specific time; as, *God is good*; *man is frail*. *Trees grow*. *Birds fly*. *Waves roll*. *He walks every morning*. *He visits the country every summer*. It is also sometimes applied to persons who are dead, but whose works remain; as, "*Seneca moralizes well*." "*David mourns deeply for his sins*."

REM. 4. "The present tense in the subjunctive," when it is followed by a member containing a verb in the future indicative, and also in the other modes when preceded by *as soon as*, *after*, *before*, *'till* or *when*, generally refers to a future action or state; as, "If ye keep my commandments, ye shall abide in my love." John 15: 10. "*As soon as he arrives*, I shall see him." "*Before he goes* I shall give him some advice." "He will doubtless call upon me, *after he arrives*."

REM. 5. To render descriptions more animated, the present tense is used for the imperfect; as, "They *dismount*, they *fly* forward to the contest." "As he *lay*, indulging himself in state, he *sees*, let down from the ceiling, a glittering sword, hung by a single hair."

REM. 6. The present tense is used sometimes to denote man's entire state of probation, when contrasted with a future state; as, "For now we *see* through a glass darkly; but then face to face." 1 Cor. 13: 12.

"This *life's* a dream, an empty show,
But the bright world to which I *go*," etc.

REM. 7. The present tense of the infinitive mode denotes an action or state, present, past or future in reference to the time of the verbs upon which it depends; as, I study *to improve*; I studied *to improve*.

REM. 8. The present infinitive depending upon a substantive

verb in the indicative mode and present tense, sometimes denotes future time ; as, "Virtue is *to triumph*." "Ferdinand is *to command* the army." "I am going *to write*."

REM. 9. Those tenses which denote time definitely, are formed by annexing the present participle of an active verb to the verb *to be*, or some of its variations.

REM. 10. The present tense is sometimes used conditionally without a conjunction ; as, "*Should* some still *doubt* whether any theory of vocal inflections can be adopted which shall not be perplexing, and on the whole injurious, especially to the young, I answer that the same doubt may as well be extended to every department of practical knowledge."—*Porter's Rhet. Reader*, page 18.

§ 141. The *imperfect tense* denotes a past action or state, or a possible, conditional or necessary past action or state, without defining the time of its occurrence ; as, "God *created* the world." "Rome *was*."

REM. 1. The author is aware that the term *imperfect* is not used above according to its etymological import, yet general use may sanction its adoption.

REM. 2. The imperfect tense sometimes denotes the specific time of past actions or states ; as, "I was standing in the door *when* the procession *passed* by."

REM. 3. Sometimes the time of an action or state is made definite by adverbs of time that modify the verb ; as, "I saw my friend *yesterday*."

§ 142. The *perfect tense* denotes a past action or state, or a conditional past action or state, and conveys an allusion to the present time ; as, "I *have attained* my object." "I *have seen* the person who was recommended to me."

REM. 1. When a verb in the perfect tense is modified by an adverb or noun denoting time, this tense denotes the time of an action or state definitely ; as, "I have been reading *to-day*." "I have *just* finished my letter."

REM. 2. When a verb in the perfect tense, is not modified by an adverb or noun denoting time, the time of the action or state, is not definitely specified ; as, "I *have accomplished* my purpose."

REM. 3. This tense sometimes denotes continued action or state ; as, "My brother *has lived* twenty years."

REM. 4. This tense is sometimes used to denote the time of

an action or state long since past, if we connect that time with the present; as, "He *has not visited* New York *since* the year 1780."

REM. 5. This tense is sometimes improperly used for the imperfect; as, "I *have graduated* in the year 1833." Here the imperfect tense should be used, because the time specified has no reference to the present. Thus it is incorrect to say, "I *have seen* my brother yesterday." "I *have attended* church last sabbath."

REM. 6. When the writings of an author which are now in existence are spoken of, the perfect tense should be used; but when both the author and his writings have ceased to be, the imperfect tense should be used. Thus it is correct to say, "Milton *has written* a poem," but it is incorrect to say, "Cicero *has written* a poem," because the poem does not exist.

REM. 7. When the perfect tense is preceded by *as soon as*, *after*, *ere*, *before*, *when*, *till* or *until*, it frequently denotes the relative time of a future action or state; as, "When I *have finished* my letter I will attend to his request." "You shall not regret our fair dominions *till* twice five summers *have enriched* our fields."—*Shakspeare*.

"Salvation! O, salvation!
The joyful sound proclaim,
Till earth's remotest nation,
Has learned Messiah's name."—*Bishop Heber*.

§ 143. The *pluperfect tense* denotes a past action or state, or a conditional past action or state that occurred at or before some specified past action or state; as, "He *had received* the news before the messenger arrived."

REM. 1. Sometimes the pluperfect tense denotes definitely the time of an action or state which occurred at or before the time of another specified action or state; as, "He *had been waiting* an hour when the messenger arrived."

REM. 2. "The pluperfect tense is often used conditionally without a conjunction;" as, "*Had I known* the circumstances, I should have pursued a different course." "*Were* it possible, I would assist you."

§ 144. The *first future tense* denotes a future action or state, or a future conditional action or state; as, "I *shall go* to town." "If I *shall go*."

REM. 1. The time of future action or state is sometimes

specified by an adverb. or noun denoting time ; as, "*I shall be prepared to receive you to-morrow.*"

REM. 2. The time of future action or state is sometimes expressed indefinitely ; as, "*There will be a state of retribution.*"

§ 145. The *second future tense* denotes a future action or state, or a conditional future action or state that will occur before some other future action or state ; as, "*I shall have finished my task when the hour of recitation arrives.*"

REM. 1. This tense sometimes expresses the time of an action or state indefinitely ; as, "*They will have accomplished their purpose at the time they proposed.*"

REM. 2. This tense sometimes expresses the time of a future action or state definitely ; as, "*The scholars will have been studying an hour when the tutor comes to examine them.*"

NUMBERS.

§ 146. *Numbers* are the forms of the verb which denote the unity or plurality of its subject. Verbs, like nouns, have two numbers, the *singular* and the *plural*. Verbs have the same numbers as their subject-nominatives.

PERSONS.

§ 147. "*Persons* are forms of the verb appropriated to the different persons of the subject, and accordingly are called the *first*, *second*, and *third* persons." Verbs have the same person as their subject-nominatives.

Singular.		Plural.	
1st per. I	love,	1st per. We	love,
2d per. Thou	lovest,	2d per. Ye or you	love,
3d per. He	loves.	3d per. They	love.

REM. 1. A verb in the imperative mode is used only in the second person, and has no change of its termination on account of number or person. It is the simplest form of the verb, whether active, passive or neuter ; as, "*Love (thou).*" "*Love (ye).*" "*Be (thou) loved.*" "*Be (ye or you) loved.*" "*Be (thou) taught.*" "*Be (ye or you) taught.*"

REM. 2. The signification of the infinitive mode is not limited to any subject, and therefore requires no change of its termination to express number or person; as, "I wish *to go*;" "I wished *to have gone*."

REM. 3. In familiar style, the terminations of the verbs are not varied to agree with their respective nominatives; except the third person singular of the indicative mode present tense, and the variations of the verb *to be*.

REM. 4. In familiar style, *s* or *es* is annexed to the third person singular in the indicative mode present tense, according to the rules given for the formation of the plural number of nouns.

REM. 5. In familiar style, the verb *to be* in the indicative mode and present tense has, in the first person and singular number, *am*; in the second, *are*; in the third, *is*; and in the plural, *are* in the first, second and third persons. In the imperfect tense of the indicative mode, the same verb has *was* in the first and third persons singular; *were* in the second, and in all the persons in the plural.

REM. 6. In the plural, verbs of all the numbers terminate alike, and have the same form as the first person singular. As the subject-nominative is generally expressed, perspicuity does not require different terminations of the verb to distinguish the different numbers and persons of their subjects.

REM. 7. In common parlance, custom authorizes the use of the plural pronoun *you* to denote a singular noun. The same authority requires that a plural verb should be joined with *you*, when it denotes a singular noun. If custom is sufficient to sanction the former, of course it can the latter. It would be as proper to say *you has*, and *you is*, as *you was*. *You* has the plural form, and therefore requires a verb of the same form. *Has*, *is* and *was* have the singular form, and therefore require their subjects to have the same form. A violation of this rule is also opposed to classical usage.

REM. 8. "In solemn style, *thou* is used in the singular and *ye* in the plural." The solemn style is used in the Bible, in sacred descriptions and in prayer. To a great extent, also, it is used in poetry; and the society of Friends adopt it as their common language.

REM. 9. In solemn style, the second person singular of the present indicative and the imperfect tense of the irregular verbs, usually terminate with *est*, which forms an additional syllable. The second person singular of the imperfect tense, indicative

mode, regular verbs, terminates with *st* ; as, *I loved, thou lovedst, not lovedest.*

REM. 10. When the verb ends with a sound that will unite with that of *st*, the second person singular may be contracted. The poets, though not uniform in their modes of contraction, generally contract the second person singular of verbs. In some cases before *st*, an apostrophe is inserted, and the consonant preceded by a single vowel is doubled ; as, *bidd'st, hold'st, ledd'st, may'st, might'st, said'st*, etc. In other cases, the contractions are made frequently by annexing *st* only ; as, *mightst, couldst, wouldst, bidst, saidst*, etc. Sometimes the vowel in the termination of words is retained, and the preceding one is suppressed ; as, *has't'nest, flatt'rest, happ'nest, slumb'rest*, etc. Often, however, the vowel of the termination is suppressed and the preceding one is retained ; as, *happen'st, quicken'st*, etc. The object in all these cases seems to be to avoid an additional syllable and promote the smoothness and euphony of the language. The auxiliaries *may, can, might, could, would* and *should*, are now generally used in the contracted form. *Dost* and *hast*, and also the irregular imperfects *didst, hadst* and *wast*, are permanently contracted. In the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*, *l* final is changed to *t* in the second person singular.

REM. 11. In the solemn style, the third person singular of the indicative mode present tense, is formed by annexing *th* when the verb ends with *e*, and *eth* when it does not. Thus an additional syllable is formed. From verbs thus formed, *doth, hath* and *saith* are contractions.

REM. 12. In the solemn style, *wert* is the second person singular of the subjunctive imperfect, if the subjunctive form is used. But if the indicative form is used, *wast* is the second person singular of the imperfect, and *art* the second person singular of the present indicative.

REM. 13. In the familiar and solemn style, the regular terminations that are annexed to verbs, are, *d* or *ed*, *st* or *est*, *s* or *es*, *th* or *eth* and *ing*. Of these, *th*, *eth* and *ing* always make an additional syllable when they are annexed to verbs ; except in *doth, hath* and *saith*. In familiar style, when verbs terminate with a letter that will unite with the others, there is no additional syllable ; but if not, an additional syllable is made. "In solemn style *ed* and *est* are uttered, by most speakers, distinctly in all cases ; except sometimes when a vowel precedes."

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

§ 148. The *conjugation* of a verb consists in naming the present and imperfect tenses, and the present and perfect participles; as, present, *love*; imperfect, *loved*; present participle, *loving*; perfect participle, *loved*.

REM. 1. "The most simple form of the verb, is that of the infinitive present, or the present indicative; as, *to love, I love*."

REM. 2. This form is called the *general root*, because all the other parts of the verb are derived from it.

REM. 3. There are also *four specific roots* from which, by the aid of auxiliaries, all the other parts of the verb are readily formed. These specific roots, are the *present* and *imperfect tenses*, and the *present* and *perfect participles*.

DECLENSION OF VERBS.

§ 149. The *declension* of a verb consists in the formation and arrangement of its several parts, according to their *voices, modes, tenses, numbers* and *persons*.

§ 150. The *synopsis* of a verb consists in giving the form of the first person singular of all the tenses of the indicative and subjunctive modes, the second person singular and plural of the imperative, the present and perfect infinitives, and the participles.

AUXILIARIES.

§ 151. *Auxiliaries* are short verbs which are prefixed to a radical part of another verb to assist in forming the compound tenses of the different modes.

§ 152. The *auxiliaries* are, *do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, must, might, could, would* and *should*, with their variations.

REM. 1. *Do, be, have* and *will*, are sometimes principal verbs.

REM. 2. *Do* is used with the present and imperfect tenses of active, transitive and intransitive verbs as an auxiliary to render a declaration or question more emphatic, or to make a contrast, or supply the place of the principal verb and its object; as, "It would have been impossible for Cicero to inflame the minds of the people to so high a pitch against *oppression* con-

sidered in the abstract, as he actually *did* inflame them against Verres.”—*Camp. Rhet.* Here *did* denotes emphasis. “It was hardly possible that we should not *distinguish* you, as he has *done*.”—*Camp. Rhet.* Here *done* supplies the place of *distinguished* you.

“—— He loves no plays
As thou dost. *Anthony* ;——”

Here *dost*, supplies the place of *lovest* plays. *Do* is auxiliary only to verbs in the present and imperfect tenses.

REM. 3. *Shall* in its primitive sense denotes *to be obliged*, or *bound in duty*; but in many of its uses, its sense is much varied. In the first person, it merely foretells; as, “I *shall* go to New York to-morrow.”

In this phrase, the word seems to have no reference to obligation; nor is it considered by a second or third person as imposing obligation on the person uttering it. But when *shall* is used in the second and third persons, it resumes its primitive sense, or one nearly allied to it, implying obligation or command; as, when a superior commands with authority, *you shall go*; or implying a right in the second and third person to expect, and hence denoting a promise in the speaker; as, “You shall receive your wages.” This is radically saying, “You *ought* to receive your wages;” but this *right* in the second person to receive, implies an *obligation* in the person speaking to pay. Hence *shall* in the first person *foretells*; in the second, *promises, commands, or expresses determination*. When *shall*, in the second and third persons, is uttered with emphasis, it expresses *determination* in the speaker, and implies an authority to enforce the act; “You *shall* go.”

Hence proceeds the impropriety of using *shall* when the Supreme Being is supposed to be the person addressed or spoken of. “The Lord *shall* fight for us—the Lord *shall* destroy them—the Lord *shall* comfort Zion.” “Thou *shall* not suffer thy Holy One to see corruption.” Acts 13: 35. See Ps. 16: 10. Acts 2: 27.—*Webster's Grammar*.

REM. 4. *Will*, when an auxiliary, denotes in the first person a *promise* or *determination*; as, “I *will* reform,” i. e. I *promise* to reform. In the second and third persons *will* simply *foretells* or expresses an opinion of what will occur hereafter.

REM. 5. *May* and *might* denote liberty or possibility; as, “He *may* go if he will;” “He *may* have written or not;” “He *might* go.”

REM. 6. *Can* and *could* denote *possibility* or *power*.

REM. 7. *Must* denotes necessity and is not varied for person, number or tense.

REM. 8. *Would* denotes *will* or *resolution*; as, "I *would* go, if I *could*." *Would* has sometimes the sense of *wish* or *pray*; as, "Would to God?" "*Would* to God we had died in Egypt." It denotes a *wish to do* or *to have*; as, "What *wouldst* thou?"

REM. 9. *Should* generally denotes *obligation*; as, "Every man *should* do his duty." Sometimes, however, it denotes a simple possible action or state; as, "I *should* go to town, if my health were good." Here *should* does not denote *obligation*.

REM. 10. *Might, could, would*, are construed in all grammars with which the author is acquainted, as the imperfect tense. But is such a construction accordant with the definition given to the imperfect tense? Does the proposition, *I might, could, would* or *should* do, denote a *past* action or state? So far as the author has examined the use of these auxiliaries, he has found no authority, either in common parlance, or in standard works, to authorize such an application of the imperfect tense. If they denote any other time than the *present*, it must be the *future*. In saying "I *might* or *could* go," I declare my present *power* or *ability* to go. "I *would* go" denotes a present *disposition* or *desire* to go. "He *should* go," denotes an *obligation* or *duty* to go. These auxiliaries have no more reference to *past* time, than *may* or *can*. Neither of them, when prefixed to the principal verb of the present tense, denotes a real action or state, but simply a *present possible* or *obligatory* action or state. The verb in this case only affirms the *possibility* of action or state, and not the *action* or *state* itself. The action or state, may or may not occur in future; but the *possibility* of them which is affirmed in the examples given, is denoted by the present tense.

REM. 11. *Could* may, however, sometimes be used in the past tense, after a verb in the imperfect, though it is generally used in the present; as, "I avenged the wrong then, because I *could* do it."

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

In the following examples, questions will be put with reference only to the verbs. The other parts of speech should be parsed according to the directions already given.

"Cæsar *crossed* the Rubicon."

What part of speech is *crossed*? § 120. Why? § 120. Conjugate *crossed*, § 148. Is it regular or irregular? § 129. Why?

§ 129. What kind? § 123. Why? § 123. What mode? § 133. Why? § 133. What tense? § 140. Why? § 140. What number? § 146. Why? § 146. What person? § 147. Why? § 147. What is its subject-nominative? *Cæsar*.

"The boy *walks*?"

What part of speech is *walks*? § 120. Why? § 120. Conjugate it. § 148. Is it regular or irregular? § 129. Why? § 129. What kind? § 124. Why? § 124. What mode? § 133. Why? § 133. What tense? § 140. Why? § 140. What number? § 146. Why? § 146. What person? § 147. Why? § 147. What is its subject-nominative? *Boy*.

"James *was instructed*."

What part of speech is *was instructed*? § 120. Why? § 120. What kind? § 126. Why? § 126. Conjugate it. § 148. Is it regular or irregular? § 126. R. 1. How is it formed? § 126. What mode? § 133. What tense? § 140. What number? § 146. What person? § 147. What is its subject-nominative? *James*.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

Water runs.¹ I can study.² Perseverance overcomes all things. Charles is disinterested.³ You respect him. We completed our work. Your hope has failed.⁴ He had resigned⁵ himself.⁶ Their fears will prevail.⁷ You shall submit.⁸ He will have determined.⁹ He shall have agreed. Let¹⁰ me depart.¹¹ Prepare¹² your lessons. He may fail. They might consider¹³. They should have obeyed. I will join you if you please¹⁴. He is not able to resist¹⁵ temptation.

QUESTIONS—*First Course*.

What is a verb? What is the *subject* of a proposition? How many kinds of verbs are there? What is an active-transitive verb? An active-intransitive verb? A passive verb? How is the passive verb formed? What is a neuter verb? How are verbs divided? What is a regular verb? How are verbs modified? What is mode? How many modes are there? Define the indicative mode. The subjunctive mode. The infinitive

¹ § 120 and 124.

² § 132, R. 1, and 133.

³ § 126.

⁴ § 142.

⁵ § 143.

⁶ § 98 and 117.

⁷ § 144.

⁸ § 144.

⁹ § 145.

¹⁰ § 136.

¹¹ § 120 and 135.

¹² § 136, R. 1.

¹³ § 132, R. 1 & 133.

¹⁴ § 134.

¹⁵ § 135.

mode. The imperative mode. What are tenses? How many tenses are there? What does the present tense denote? The imperfect? The perfect? The pluperfect? The first future? The second future? What is number? Define person. In what does the conjugation of a verb consist? What is the declension of a verb? Define the synopsis of a verb? What are auxiliaries? Repeat each of the auxiliaries.

QUESTIONS—Second Course.

What is the meaning of the term *transitive*? What does *intransitive* mean? When a present participle is annexed to the neuter verb, *to be*, what does the combination form? When the perfect participle of an active-intransitive verb is annexed to the neuter verb *to be*? What does the combination form? What difference in meaning is there between an active and a passive verb? How is the agent of a passive, and the object of an active verb often left? How may most active verbs be used? Are any verbs used as *neuter* and *active transitive* also? Give examples. When a verb ends with *y*, preceded by a consonant, what change is made to form the imperfect tense? How do monosyllables and verbs accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant, form the imperfect? If an active verb is formed by the combination of the verb *to be* and an active participle, when is it regular or irregular? Are verbs ever compounded with prepositions? Give examples. State reasons why the potential mode is not adopted in this grammar. How is the indicative mode known? What conjunctions are signs of the subjunctive mode? When *to* is prefixed to a verb, what is it the sign of? How is the imperative mode known? How many tenses has the imperative mode? How many general divisions of time are there? Has the division of tenses occasioned grammarians any difficulty? What reasons are there for adopting the definition given to the present tense? Does the present tense ever denote a specific time of action? What does the present tense often denote? When does the present tense refer to a future action or state? Why is the present tense sometimes used for the perfect? Does the present tense ever denote an entire state of probation? What does the present tense of the infinitive mode denote? What does the present infinitive, depending upon a substantive verb in the indicative mode present tense, denote? How are those tenses formed which denote time definitely? Is the present

tense ever used conditionally without a conjunction? In this grammar is the imperfect tense used according to its etymological import? Does the imperfect tense ever denote the specific time of past action? Give examples. How is the time of an action sometimes made definite? When does the perfect tense denote the time of an action definitely? When is it indefinite? Does the perfect tense ever denote continued action or state? Give examples. Does it ever denote time long since past? Give examples. Why is this tense sometimes improperly used for the imperfect? What should be used in speaking of the writings of an author now in existence? When the writings and the author have ceased to be, what tense should be used? When does the perfect tense denote the relative time of a future action? Define the *definite* pluperfect tense. The *indefinite* pluperfect tense. *Conditional* pluperfect. How is the time of future action or state sometimes specified? Give an example of *indefinite* future action. Give an example of the second future tense *indefinite*. Example of the second future *definite*. How many persons has the verb in the imperative mode? Is the signification of the infinitive mode limited? How is the familiar style of the terminations of verbs limited? Under what circumstances is *s* or *es* annexed to the third person singular, indicative mode present tense? In familiar style, how is the verb *to be* varied in the present and imperfect tenses of the indicative mode? How do verbs terminate in the plural? Is the use of the plural *you* to denote a singular noun ever authorized? How are *thou* and *ye* used? In solemn style, how does the second person singular of the present indicative, and the imperfect tense of the irregular verbs, usually terminate? When may the sound of the verb be contracted? In grave style, how is the third person singular of the indicative mode present tense formed? In solemn style, what is *wert*? What are the regular terminations of verbs? What is the most simple form of the verb? What is this form called? How many specific roots are there? Are *do*, *be*, *have*, *will*, *need* and *dare*, ever principal verbs? How is *do* used? What does *shall* denote? *Will*? *May*? *Can* and *could*? *Must*? *Would*? *Should*? How are *might*, *could* and *would* construed? How is *could* sometimes used?

PARTICIPLES.

§ 153. A *participle* is a word which is derived from a verb and partakes of its nature.

REM. 1. The common definition given to this part of speech, differs from the above in this, that it ascribes to the participle the nature of an adjective as well as that of a verb. But a pure participle partakes no more of the nature of an adjective than the verb from which it is derived. "I saw a man *drinking*." Here the participle *drinking* simply denotes the act of the man and not his character or habits. But place the participle before the noun *man*, and this new position gives it a descriptive meaning. In this position, it describes the habits and character of the man. The common definition of a participle is adapted to the participial adjective, and the name of the latter shows that it partakes of the nature of a verb, and also of an adjective.

REM. 2. Participles retain essentially the meaning of their verbs, and like them they are either *active transitive*, or *active intransitive*, *passive* or *neuter*.

§ 154. There are three kinds of participles; the *present*, the *perfect*, and the *compound perfect*; as, *loving*, *loved*, *having loved*.

§ 155. The *present* participle denotes a progressive present action or state. When derived from an active or neuter verb, it is formed by annexing *ing* to the first form of the verb, when it does not end with *e*; as, *hold*, *holding*; *yield*, *yielding*. But when it has final *e*, the present participle is generally formed by dropping *e* and annexing *ing*; as, *love*, *loving*; *make*, *making*.

Ex. 1. Verbs ending with the diphthong *ee*, do not drop *e* as, *see*, *seeing*; *flee*, *fleeing*.

Ex. 2. The neuter verb *be* retains its final *e* in forming the present participle; as, *be*, *being*.

Ex. 3. *Dye*, to color, retains its final *e* to distinguish its present participle *dieing* from *dying*, the participle of *die*. In *singeing* from *singe*, *e* is retained to distinguish it from *singing*, the participle of *sing*.

REM. 1. The present participle of a passive verb, is composed of the present participle of the verb *be* and the perfect participle of an active-transitive verb; as, *being loved*; *being finished*.

REM. 2. The present participle by its position in the sentence, sometimes acquires partially the nature of an adjective and by consequence is called a *participial adjective*. A *bowing wall*; a *yielding child*.

REM. 3. By construction the present participle partially acquires the nature of a noun, and by consequence is called a *participial noun*; as, "In *keeping* the commandments, there is great reward." When it acquires the meaning of a noun, it admits the definite article *the*; as, "The *burning* of London in 1666." When construed as a participial noun, it admits the plural form; as, "The *overflowings* of the Nile." "He seeth all his *doings*." This use of the participle however is not considered elegant, nor is it usual.

REM. 4. The participle sometimes becomes a noun by annexing *ness* to it; as, *willing*, *willingness*.

REM. 5. The present participle sometimes becomes an adverb by annexing *ly* to it; as, *smiling*, *smilingly*; *amusing*, *amusingly*; *longing*, *longingly*.

REM. 6. The present participle sometimes denotes a past action or state, when it follows a principal verb in the past tense; as, "I saw a man *walking*." "I saw the trees *waving*." But when it follows an auxiliary verb it is usually joined with it to form a verb; as, "He *was walking*." "John *was studying*."

§ 156. The *perfect* participle denotes an action or state entirely past, and when derived from regular verbs, it is formed by annexing to the verb *ed*, or *d* only when the verb ends with *e*.

REM. 1. When this participle is derived from an active-transitive verb, it is annexed to the auxiliary *be* and its variations to form the passive verb. But when it is derived from an active intransitive or neuter verb it cannot be thus annexed and used in the passive sense.

REM. 2. This participle when placed before a noun in construction often acquires partially the nature of an adjective, and hence is called a *participial adjective*; as, "a *ruined* man;" "a *concentrated* plot."

REM. 3. Sometimes the perfect participle acquires the mean-

ing of an adverb, by annexing *ly*; as, *deservedly*; *promotedly*; *concededly*.

§ 157. The *compound perfect* participle denotes a past action or state that occurred before another past action or state; as, “*Having finished* my business, I returned home.”

REMARK. When this participle is active or neuter, it is formed by prefixing the present participle *having* to the perfect participle of active or neuter verbs; as, *having loved*; *having been*. When it is passive, it is formed by prefixing *having been*, to the perfect participle of an active-transitive verb; as, *having been loved*.

§ 158. All modes have not the same number of tenses.

The indicative has six tenses.

The subjunctive has six tenses.

The imperative has one tense.

The infinitive has two tenses.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

§ 159. In this treatise, verbs are declined in two ways, *affirmatively* and *interrogatively*.

Declension of Auxiliaries, affirmatively.

INDICATIVE MODE.

MAY.

Singular.		Plural.
1st per. I may,	[may,	We may,
2d per. Thou mayest, or you		Ye or you may,
3d per. He, she, or it may.		They may.

MIGHT.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might,	We might,
2. Thou mightst or you might,	Ye or you might,
3. He, she, or it might.	They might.

CAN.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I can,
2. Thou canst *or* you can,
3. He, she, *or* it can.

Plural.

- We can,
 Ye *or* you can.
 They can.

COULD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I could,
2. Thou couldst *or* you could.
3. He, she, *or* it could.

Plural.

- We could,
 Ye *or* you could,
 They could.

SHOULD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I should,
2. Thou shouldst *or* you should,
3. He, she, *or* it should.

Plural.

- We should,
 Ye *or* you should,
 They should.

WOULD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I would,
2. Thou wouldst *or* you would,
3. He, she, *or* it would.

Plural.

- We would,
 Ye *or* you would,
 They would.

SHALL.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall,
2. Thou shalt *or* you shall.
3. He, she, *or* it shall.

Plural.

- We shall,
 Ye *or* you shall,
 They shall.

WILL.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I will,
2. Thou wilt *or* you will,
3. He, she, *or* it will.

Plural.

- We will,
 Ye *or* you will,
 They will.

REM. 1. *Will*, used as a principal verb, is declined regularly; as, I *will*, thou *willest*, he *will*, etc.

REM. 2. *Must* has no change of termination.

§ 160. *Conjugation of the regular active verb LOVE, affirmatively.*

Present.	Imperfect.	Pres. Participle.	Perf. Participle.
Love.	Loved.	Loving.	Loved.

Declension of the verb LOVE, affirmatively.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I love,	We love,
2. Thou lovest <i>or</i> you love,	Ye <i>or</i> you love,
3. He, she, <i>or</i> it loves.	They love.

With the auxiliary *Do*.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I do love,	We do love,
2. Thou dost love, <i>or</i> you do love,	Ye <i>or</i> you do love,
3. He, she, <i>or</i> it does love.	They do love.

REMARK. The auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would* *or* *should*, are prefixed to the principal verb to denote a *possible* *or* necessary action *or* state.

Present Tense,

With *may*, *can*, *or* *must*.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may, <i>can</i> <i>or</i> <i>must</i> love,	We may, <i>can</i> <i>or</i> <i>must</i> love,
2. Thou mayest, canst <i>or</i> <i>must</i> love, <i>or</i> you may, <i>can</i> <i>or</i> <i>must</i> love.	Ye <i>or</i> you may, <i>can</i> <i>or</i> <i>must</i> love.
3. He, she, <i>or</i> it may, <i>can</i> <i>or</i> <i>must</i> love.	They may, <i>can</i> <i>or</i> <i>must</i> love.

Present Tense,

With *might*, *could*, *would* *and* *should*.

Singular.

1. I might, could, would *or* should love,

2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst *or* shouldst love, *or* you might, could, would *or* should love,
3. He, she, *or* it might, could, would *or* should love.

Plural.

1. We might, could, would *or* should love,
2. Ye *or* you might, could, would *or* should love,
3. They might, could, would *or* should love.

Imperfect Tense.

Rem. 1. This tense is formed by annexing *ed* to the present when the verb does not end with *e*, *or d* only when it has *e* final ; thus,

Singular.

1. I loved,
2. Thou lovedst, *or* you loved,
3. He, she, *or* it loved.

Plural.

- We loved,
Ye *or* you loved,
They loved.

With the auxiliary *did*.

Singular.

1. I did love,
2. Thou didst love, *or* you did
3. He, she, *or* it did love.

Plural.

- [love, We did love,
Ye *or* you did love,
They did love.

With *may*, *can*, *must* and *have*.

Singular.

1. I may, can *or* must have loved,
2. Though mayest, canst *or* must have loved, *or* you may, can *or* must have loved.
2. He, she, *or* it may, can *or* must have loved.

Plural.

1. We may, can *or* must have loved,
2. Ye *or* you may, can *or* must have loved,
3. They may, can *or* must have loved.

With *might*, *could*, *would*, *should* and *have*.

Singular.

1. I might, could, would *or* should have loved,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst *or* shouldst have loved, *or* you might, could, would *or* should have loved.
3. He, she *or* it might, could, would *or* should have loved.

Plural.

1. We might, could, would *or* should have loved,
2. Ye *or* you might, could, would *or* should have loved.
3. They might, could, would *or* should have loved.

Perfect Tense.

REM. 2. The *perfect tense* is formed by prefixing the auxiliary *have* to the perfect participle ; thus,

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|------------------------------|
| 1. I have loved, | • We have loved, |
| 2. Thou hast loved, <i>or</i> you have loved, | Ye <i>or</i> you have loved, |
| 3. He, she, <i>or</i> it has loved. | They have loved |

Pluperfect Tense.

REM. 3. This tense is formed by prefixing the auxiliary *had* to the perfect participle ; thus,

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|-----------------------------|
| 1. I had loved, | We had loved, |
| 2. Thou hadst loved, <i>or</i> you had loved. | Ye <i>or</i> you had loved, |
| 3. He, she, <i>or</i> it had loved. | They had loved. |

First Future Tense.

REM. 4. This tense is formed by prefixing the auxiliary *shall* *or will* to the radical verb ; thus,

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall <i>or</i> will love, | We shall <i>or</i> will love, |
| 2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt love, <i>or</i> you shall <i>or</i> will love, | Ye <i>or</i> you shall <i>or</i> will love, |
| 3. He, she, <i>or</i> it shall <i>or</i> will love. | They shall <i>or</i> will love. |

Second Future Tense.

REM. 5. This tense is formed by prefixing the auxiliary *shall have* *or will have* to the perfect participle ; thus,

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have loved, | We shall have loved, |
| 2. Thou wilt have loved, <i>or</i> you will have loved, | Ye <i>or</i> you will have loved, |
| 3. He, she, <i>or</i> it will have loved. | They will have loved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

REM. 6. The conditional conjunctions, *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *etc.*, are prefixed to verbs in this mode.

Subjunctive Form.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I love,
2. If thou *or* you love,
3. If he, she, *or* it loves.

Plural.

- If we love,
If ye *or* you love,
If they love.

With *may, can* and *must*.

Singular.

1. If I may, can *or* must love,
2. If thou *or* you may, can *or* must love,
3. If he, she, *or* it may, can *or* must love.

Plural.

1. If we may, can *or* must love,
2. If ye *or* you may, can *or* must love,
3. If they may, can *or* must love.

With *might, could, would* and *should*.

Singular.

1. If I might, could, would *or* should love,
2. If thou *or* you might, could, would *or* should love,
3. If he, she, *or* it might, could, would *or* should love.

Plural.

1. If we might, could, would *or* should love,
2. If ye *or* you might, could, would *or* should love,
3. If they might, could, would *or* should love.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

1. If I loved,
2. If thou *or* you loved,
3. If he, she, *or* it loved.

Plural.

- If we loved,
If ye *or* you loved,
If they loved.

With *may, can, must* and *have*.

Singular.

1. If I may, can *or* must have loved,
2. If thou *or* you may, can *or* must have loved,
3. If he, she, *or* it may, can *or* must have loved.

Plural.

1. If we may, can *or* must have loved,
2. If ye *or* you may, can *or* must have loved,
3. If they may, can *or* must have loved.

With *might, could, would, should* and *have*.

Singular.

1. If I might, could, would *or* should have loved,
2. If thou *or* you might, could, would *or* should have loved,
3. If he, she, *or* it might, could, would *or* should have loved.

Plural.

1. If we might, could, would *or* should have loved,
2. If ye *or* you might, could, would *or* should have loved,
3. If they might, could, would *or* should have loved.

REM. 7. *Perfect, pluperfect* and *first future tenses* of the indicative form of this mode, are declined like the same tenses in the *indicative mode*, except a conditional conjunction is prefixed to the verb. The same remark is applicable to the declension of the *neuter* and *passive verbs* in this mode.

REM. 8. The *second future tense* of the indicative mode, has *wilt* in the *second*, and *will* in the *third* person singular, and *will* in the *second* and *third* persons plural; but the same tense of the *subjunctive*, has neither of them. The *second future* of the *subjunctive mode*, is declined thus:—

Second Future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1. If I shall have loved, | If we shall have loved, |
| 2. If thou shalt have loved, <i>or</i>
you shall have loved, | If ye <i>or</i> you shall have loved, |
| 3. If he, she, <i>or</i> it shall have
loved. | If they shall have loved. |

REM. 9. the indicative form of the *subjunctive mode* has the first five tenses like the same in the *indicative*, except a conditional conjunction is prefixed to the verb. The *second future tense* has no indicative form.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Sing. 2. Love *or* love (thou) *or* do thou love.

Sing. 2. Love (ye *or* you) *or* do ye *or* you love.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Pres. To love.

Perf. To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. Loving.

Perf. Loved.

Comp. Perf. Having loved.

§ 161. *Conjugation of the irregular verb SEE.*

Pres.	Imp.	Pres. Part.	Perf. Part.
See.	Saw.	Seeing.	Seen.

Declension of the irregular active verb SEE, affirmatively.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I see,	We see,
2. Thou seest, or you see,	Ye or you see,
3. He, she, or it sees.	They see.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I saw,	We saw,
2. Thou sawest, or you saw,	Ye or you saw,
3. He, she, or it saw.	They saw.

REMARK. Irregular verbs may be declined with the same auxiliaries, as the regular verb *love*.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have seen,	We have seen,
2. Thou hast seen, or you have seen,	Ye or you have seen,
3. He, she, or it has seen.	They have seen.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had seen,	We had seen,
2. Thou hadst seen, or you had seen,	Ye or you had seen,
3. He, she, or it had seen.	They had seen.

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall or will see,	We shall or will see,
2. Thou shalt or wilt see, or you shall or will see,	Ye or you shall or will see,
3. He, she, or it shall or will see.	They shall or will see.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---|---------------------------|
| 1. I shall have seen, | We shall have seen, |
| 2. Thou wilt have seen, or you
will have seen, | Ye or you will have seen, |
| 3. He, she, or it will have seen. | They will have seen. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Subjunctive Form.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. If I see, | If we see, |
| 2. If thou or you see, | If ye or you see, |
| 3. If he, she, or it see. | If they see. |

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. If I saw, | If we saw, |
| 2. If thou or you saw, | If ye or you saw, |
| 3. If he, she, or it saw. | If they saw. |

REMARK. The *perfect* and *pluperfect tenses* of this mode, are like those of the *indicative*, with the exception of the conditional conjunctions.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. If I shall have seen, | If we shall have seen, |
| 2. If thou or you shall have seen, | If ye or you shall have seen, |
| 3. If he, she, or it shall have seen. | If they shall have seen. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Sing. 2. See or see (thou), or do thou see.

Plur. 2. See ye or you, or do ye or you see.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Pres. To see.*Perf.* To have seen.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. Seeing.*Perf.* Seen.*Compound Perf.* Having seen.

§ 162. *Conjugation of the irregular neuter verb BE.*

Pres.	Imp.	Pres. Part.	Perf. Past.
Am or be.	Was.	Being.	Been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am,	We are,
2. Thou art, or you are,	Ye or you are,
3. He, she, or it is.	They are.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was,	We were,
2. Thou wast, or you were,	Ye or you were,
3. He, she, or it was.	They were.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have been,	We have been,
2. Thou hast been, or you have been,	Ye or you have been,
3. He, she, or it has been.	They have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had been,	We had been,
2. Thou hadst been, or you had been,	Ye or you had been,
3. He, she, or it had been.	They had been.

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall or will be,	We shall or will be,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be, or you shall or will be,	Ye or you shall or will be,
3. He, she, or it shall or will be.	They shall or will be.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall have been,	We shall have been,
2. Thou wilt have been, or you will have been,	Ye or you will have been,
3. He, she, or it will have been.	They will have been,

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Subjunctive Form.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. If I be, | If we be, |
| 2. If thou be, or you be, | If ye or you be, |
| 3. If he, she, or it be. | If they be. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. If I were, | If we were, |
| 2. If thou wert, or you were, | If ye or you were, |
| 3. If he, she, or it were. | If they were. |

Second Future Tense.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. If I shall have been, | If we shall have been, |
| 2. If thou shalt have been, or
you shall have been. | If ye or you shall have been, |
| 3. If he, she, or it shall have been. | If they shall have been. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

- Sing. 2.* Be or be (thou), or do thou be.
Plur. 2. Be ye or you, or do ye or you be.

INFINITIVE MODE.

To be.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. Being. *Perf. Been.* *Comp. Perf. Having been.*

§ 163. Conjugation of the compound form of the regular active verb BE LOVING.

Present.	Imperf.	Pres. Part.	Perf. Part.
Am or be loving.	Was loving.	Loving.	Loved.

REMARK. Both transitive and intransitive verbs may be conjugated by annexing the present participle to the auxiliary verb, be; as, "I am studying my lesson." "The field is ploughing."

Declension of the regular transitive verb BE LOVING, affirmatively or negatively.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I am loving,
2. Thou art loving, or you are loving,
3. He, she, or it is loving.

Plural.

- We are loving,
Ye or you are loving,
They are loving.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I was loving,
2. Thou wast loving, or you were loving,
3. He, she, or it was loving.

Plural.

- We were loving,
Ye or you were loving,
They were loving.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I have been loving,
2. Thou hast been loving, or you have been loving,
3. He, she, or it has been loving.

Plural.

- We have been loving,
Ye or you have been loving,
They have been loving.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I had been loving,
2. Thou hadst been loving, or you had been loving,
3. He, she, or it had been loving.

Plural.

- We had been loving,
Ye or you had been loving,
They had been loving.

First Future Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall or will be loving,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be loving, or you shall or will be loving,
3. He, she, or it shall or will be loving.

Plural.

- We shall or will be loving,
Ye or you shall or will be loving,
They shall or will be loving.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall have been loving,

Plural.

- We shall have been loving,

2. Thou wilt have been loving, Ye or you will have been loving,
 or you will have been loving, ing,
 3. He, she, or it will have been They will have been loving.
 loving.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Subjunctive Form.

Present Tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|-------------------------|
| 1. If I be loving, | If we be loving, |
| 2. If thou be loving, or you be loving, | If ye or you be loving. |
| 3. If he, she, or it be loving. | If they be loving. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|---------------------------|
| 1. If I were loving, | If we were loving, |
| 2. If thou wert loving, or you were loving, | If ye or you were loving, |
| 3. If he, she, or it were loving. | If they were loving. |

Second Future Tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1. If I shall have been loving. | If we shall have been loving, |
| 2. If thou shalt have been loving, or you shall have been loving, | If ye or you shall have been loving, |
| 3. If he, she, or it shall have been loving. | If they shall have been loving. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

- Sing.* 2. Be (thou) loving, or do thou be loving.
Plur. 2. Be ye or you loving, or do ye or you be loving.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

- Pres.* To be loving. *Perf.* To have been loving.

PARTICIPLES.

- Pres.* Being loving. *Perf.* —. *Comp. Perf.* Having been loving.

PASSIVE VERB.

§ 164. *Conjugation of the regular passive verb* BE LOVED.

Pres.	Imp.	Pres. Part.	Perf. Part.
Am or be loved.	Was loved.	Being loved.	Loved.

Declension of the regular passive verb BE LOVED, *negatively or affirmatively.*

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am loved,	We are loved,
2. Thou art loved, or you are loved,	Ye or you are loved,
3. He, she, or it is loved.	They are loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was loved,	We were loved,
2. Thou wert loved, or you were loved,	Ye or you were loved,
3. He, she, or it was loved.	They were loved.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have been loved,	We have been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved, or you have been loved.	Ye or you have been loved,
3. He, she, or it has been loved.	They have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had been loved,	We had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved, or you had been loved,	Ye or you had been loved,
3. He, she, or it had been loved.	They had been loved.

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall or will be loved,	We shall or will be loved,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be loved, or you shall or will be loved,	Ye or you shall or will be loved,
3. He, she, or it shall or will be loved.	They shall or will be loved.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall have been loved,
2. Thou wilt have been loved, *or*
you will have been loved,
3. He, she, *or* it will have been
loved.

Plural.

- We shall have been loved,
Ye *or* you will have been
loved.
They will have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Subjunctive Form.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I be loved,
2. If thou be loved, *or* you be
loved,
3. If he, she, *or* it be loved.

Plural.

- If we he loved,
If ye *or* you be loved,
If they be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

1. If I were loved,
2. If thou wert loved, *or* you
were loved,
3. If he, she, *or* it were loved.

Plural.

- If we were loved,
If ye *or* you were loved,
If they were loved.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.

1. If I shall have been loved,
2. If thou shalt have been loved,
or you shall have been loved,
3. If he, she, *or* it shall have
been loved.

Plural.

- If we shall have been loved,
If ye *or* you shall have been
loved,
If they shall have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

2. *Sing.* Be (thou) loved, *or* do (thou) be loved.
2. *Plur.* Be (ye *or* you) loved, *or* do (ye *or* you) be loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Pres. To be loved.*Perf.* To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. Being loved. *Perf.* Loved. *Comp. Perf.* Having been loved.

§ 165. A verb is conjugated *interrogatively* in the indicative mode, by placing the nominative after the verb, or after the first auxiliary.

REMARK. The auxiliaries are generally prefixed to verbs in asking questions.

Declension of the irregular active verb READ interrogatively, and affirmatively or negatively.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. Do I read ?	Do we read ?
2. Didst thou read ? or do you read ?	Do ye or you read ?
3. Does he, she, or it read ?	Do they read ?

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. Did I read ?	Did we read ?
2. Didst thou read ? or did you read ?	Did ye or you read ?
3. Did he, she, or it read ?	Did they read ?

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. Have I read ?	Have we read ?
2. Hast thou read ? or have you read ?	Have ye or you read ?
3. Has he, she, or it read ?	Have they read ?

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. Had I read ?	Had we read ?
2. Hadst thou read ? or had you read ?	Had ye or you read ?
3. Had he, she, or it read ?	Had they read ?

First Future Tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|---------------------------------|
| 1. Shall I read? | Shall <i>or</i> will we read? |
| 2. Shalt <i>or</i> wilt thou read? <i>or</i> shall <i>or</i> will you read? | Shall <i>or</i> will you read? |
| 3. Shall <i>or</i> will he, she, <i>or</i> it read? | Shall <i>or</i> will they read? |

Second Future Tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. Shall I have read? | Shall we have read? |
| 2. Wilt thou have read? <i>or</i> will you have read? | Will ye <i>or</i> you have read? |
| 3. Will he, she, <i>or</i> it have read? | Will they have read? |

REMARK. The auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *could*, *would* and *should*, may be conjugated with this verb in the same manner.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

“Knowledge is increasing.”

What part of speech is *increasing*? § 120. Why? § 120. What kind of a verb? § 124. How is it formed? § 163, R. Is it regular or irregular? § 129, R. 3. What mode? § 133. What tense? § 140. What is its subject? *Knowledge*.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

He is walking.¹ He was bathing² himself. Do³ you approve my plans? Did you know the strangers?

QUESTIONS—*First Course.*

What is a participle? How many kinds of participles are there? Name them. What is a present participle? How is it formed? What is the first exception? Second? Third? What is a perfect participle? Define a compound perfect participle. Have all modes the same number of tenses? In how many ways are verbs declined? Decline *may*, present tense. *Might*. *Can*. *Could*. *Should*. *Would*. *Shall*. *Will*. Conjugate the verb *love*. Decline the verb *love* through all the modes and tenses, with the auxiliaries. Conjugate and decline, in like manner, the verb *saw*. Conjugate and decline the verb *be loving*.

¹ § 163, R.

² § 163.

³ § 151 and 152.

Conjugate and decline the passive verb *be loved*. How is a verb conjugated *interrogatively*? Decline the verb *read* *interrogatively*.

QUESTIONS—Second Course.

How does the definition of the participle differ from that usually given? Do participles retain the meaning of their verbs? Of what is the present participle of a passive verb composed? How does the present participle partially acquire the nature of a noun? In what other way may the participle sometimes become a noun? How may the present participle sometimes become an adverb? When may a present participle denote a past action or state? How may this participle partially acquire the nature of an adjective? How may it acquire the nature of an adverb? How is the compound perfect participle formed? How is *will* declined when it is a principal verb? Has *must* a change of termination? What auxiliaries are prefixed to the principal verb to denote a *possible* or *necessary* action? How is the perfect tense formed? Pluperfect? First Future? Second Future? How is the subjunctive mode formed? How are the *perfect*, *pluperfect* and *first future* tenses of this mode declined? How does the second future indicative differ from the second future subjunctive? Describe the indicative form of the subjunctive. Are irregular verbs declined with the same auxiliaries as regular verbs? What tenses of the subjunctive mode are like the same in the indicative? How does the *indicative form* of the subjunctive mode differ from the *indicative mode*? What auxiliaries may be conjugated with the verb *read*?

IRREGULAR VERBS.

§ 166. Conjugation of the Irregular Verbs.

REM. 1. In the list of irregular verbs, there are some that may be conjugated regularly; and such are noted by the letter R. Those *imperfects* and *participles* that are placed *first* in the list, are preferable to those that occupy the *second* place. The number of defective and irregular verbs, is about 177.

REM. 2. Several verbs which formerly had *a* in the imperfect tense, now have *o*, *u* or *i*; as, *bare*, *brake*, *drove*, *got*, *rang*, *sang*, *sank*, *spat*, *spake*, *sprang*, *sware* and *tare*, for *bore*, *broke*, *drove*, *got*,

rung, sung, sunk, spit, spoke, sprung, swore and tore. The latter forms are considered the most correct.

REM. 3. The following perfect participles formerly terminated with *en*, but this termination is now obsolescent, and the terminations of some participles exhibited in the list are generally used; as, *baken, boughten, bounden, chidden, cloven, drunken, foughten, gotten, tolden, ridden, shapen, haven, sitten, slidden, spitten, stridden, stricken, swollen, shriven, waxen*, etc.

REM. 4. Sometimes the imperfect tense and perfect participle are terminated by *t* instead of *ed*; as, *tost* for *tossed*; *crackt* for *cracked*; *learnt* for *learned*. This termination *t* is in some cases allowable; but generally the regular termination *ed* is preferable, and accords better with the use of the best authors.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS CONJUGATED.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Imp.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abiding,	abode,
Arise,	arose,	arising,	arisen.
Be or am,	was,	being,	been.
Bear,	bore or bare,	bearing,	borne or born.
Beat,	beat,	beating,	beaten or beat.
Begin,	began,	beginning,	begun.
Bend,	bent, R.	bending,	bent, R.
Bereave,	bereaved or bereft,	bereaving,	bereaved or bereft.
Beseech,	besought,	beseeching,	besought.
Bid,	bid or bade,	bidding,	bidden or bid.
Bind,	bound,	binding,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	biting,	bitten or bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bleeding,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blowing,	blown.
Break,	broke,	breaking,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	breeding,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	bringing,	brought.
Build,	built, R.	building,	built, R.
Burst,	burst,	bursting,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	buying,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	casting,	cast.
Catch,	caught, R.	catching,	caught, R.
Chide,	chid,	chiding,	chidden or chid.
Choose,	chose,	choosing,	chosen.
Cleave,	cleft or clove,	cleaving,	cleft or cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clinging,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed or clad,	clothing,	clothed or clad.
Come,	came,	coming,	come.
Cost,	cost,	costing,	cost.
Crow,	crowed or crew,	crowing,	crowed.
Creep,	crept, R.	creeping,	crept, R.
Cut,	cut,	cutting,	cut.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Imp.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Dare,	dared <i>or</i> durst,	daring,	dared.
Deal,	dealt, R.	dealing,	dealt, R.
Dig,	dug, R.	digging,	dug, R.
Do,	did,	doing,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawing,	drawn.
Dream,	dreamt, R.	dreaming,	dreamt, R.
Drive,	drove,	driving,	driven.
Drink,	drank,	drinking,	drunk.
Dwell,	dwelt, R.	dwelling,	dwelt, R.
Eat,	ate <i>or</i> eat,	eating,	eaten. [ven.
Engrave,	engraved,	engraving,	engraved <i>or</i> engra-
Fall,	fell,	falling,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	feeding,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	feeling,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fighting,	fought.
Find,	found,	finding,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fleeing,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flinging,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flying,	flown.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaking,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	freezing,	frozen.
Get,	got,	getting,	got <i>or</i> gotten.
Gild,	gilt, R.	gilding,	gilt, R.
Gird,	girt, R.	girding,	girt, R.
Give,	gave,	giving,	given.
Go,	went,	going,	gone.
Grave,	graved,	graving,	graved <i>or</i> graven.
Grind,	ground,	grinding,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	growing,	grown.
Hang,	hung, R.	hanging,	hung, R.
Have,	had,	having,	had.
Hear,	heard,	hearing,	heard.
Heave,	heaved <i>or</i> hove	heaving,	heaved <i>or</i> hoven.
Hew,	hewed,	hewing,	hewed <i>or</i> hewn.
Hide,	hid,	hiding,	hidden <i>or</i> hid.
Hit,	hit,	hitting,	hit.
Hold,	held,	holding,	held.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurting,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	keeping,	kept.
Kneel,	kneeled <i>or</i> knelt	kneeling,	kneeled <i>or</i> knelt.
Knit,	knit, R.	knitting,	knit, R.
Know,	knew,	knowing,	known.
Lade,	laded,	lading,	laden, R.
Lay,	laid,	laying,	laid.
Lean,	leaned <i>or</i> leant,	leaning,	leaned <i>or</i> leant.
Lead,	led,	leading,	led.
Leave,	left,	leaving,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lending,	lent.
Let,	let,	letting,	let.
Lie,	lay,	lying,	lain.
Light,	lighted <i>or</i> lit,	lighting,	lighted <i>or</i> lit.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Imp.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Lose,	lost,	losing,	lost.
Make,	made,	making,	made.
Mean,	meant, R.	meaning,	meant, R.
Meet,	met,	meeting,	met.
Mow,	mowed,	mowing,	mowed or mown.
Pay,	paid,	paying,	paid.
Put,	put,	putting,	put.
Quit,	quitted or quit,	quitting,	quitted or quit.
Read,	read,	reading,	read.
Reave,	reft, R.	reaving,	reft, R.
Rend,	rent,	rending,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	ridding,	rid.
Ride,	rode,	riding,	ridden or rode.
Ring,	rung or rang,	ringing,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	rising,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	riving,	riven or rived.
Run,	ran,	running,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawing,	sawed or sawn.
Say,	said,	saying,	said.
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	seeking,	sought.
Seethe,	seethed or sod,	seething,	seethed or sodden.
Sell,	sold,	selling,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sending,	sent.
Set,	set,	setting,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaking,	shaken.
Shave,	shaved,	shaving,	shaved or shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	shearing,	sheared or shorn.
Shed,	shed,	shedding,	shed.
Shine,	shone, R.	shining,	shone, R.
Shoe,	shod,	shoeing,	shod.
Show,	showed,	showing,	shown, R.
Shoot,	shot,	shooting,	shot.
Shut,	shut,	shutting,	shut.
Shred,	shred,	shredding,	shred.
Shrink,	shrunk,	shrinking,	shrunk.
Sing,	sung or sang,	singing,	sung.
Sink,	sunk or sank,	sinking,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sitting,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slaying,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	sleeping,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	sliding,	slidden or slid.
Sling,	slung,	slinging,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slinking,	slunk.
Slit,	slit, R.	slitting,	slit, R.
Smite,	smote,	smiting,	smitten or smit.
Sow,	sowed,	sowing,	sowed or sown.
Speak,	spoke,	speaking,	spoken.
Speed,	sped,	speeding,	sped.
Spend,	spent,	spending,	spent.
Spill,	spilt, R.	spilling,	spilt, R.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Imp.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Spin,	spun,	spinning,	spun.
Spit,	spit or spat,	spitting,	spit.
Split,	split,	splitting,	split.
Spread,	spread,	spreading,	spread.
Spring,	sprung or sprang,	springing,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	standing,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stealing,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	sticking,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stinging,	stung.
Stride,	strode or strid,	striding,	stridden.
Strike,	struck,	striking,	struck.
String,	strung, R.	stringing,	strung, R.
Strive,	strove, R.	striving,	striven.
Strow,	strowed,	strowing,	strowed or strown.
Swear,	swore,	swearing,	sworn.
Sweat,	sweated or sweat,	sweating,	sweated or sweat.
Sweep,	swept,	sweeping,	swept.
Swell,	swelled,	swelling,	swelled or swollen.
Swim,	swum or swam,	swimming,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swinging,	swung.
Take,	took,	taking,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	tearing,	torn.
Tell,	told,	telling,	told.
Think,	thought,	thinking,	thought.
Thrive,	thrived or throve,	thriving,	thrived or thriven.
Throw,	threw, R.	throwing,	thrown, R.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrusting,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	treading,	trodden or trod.
Wake,	waked or woke,	waking,	waked.
Wax,	waxed,	waxing,	waxed.
Wear,	wore,	wearing,	worn.
Weave,	wove, R.	weaving,	woven, R.
Weep,	wept, R.	weeping,	wept, R.
Win,	won,	winning,	won.
Wind,	wound, R.	winding,	wound.
Want,	want, R.	wanting,	want, R.
Work,	worked or wrought,	working,	worked or wrought.
Wring,	wrung, R.	wringing,	wrung,
Write,	wrote,	writing.	written.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

§ 167. *Defective* verbs are those that want some of their principal parts. When any of the principal parts are wanting, the tenses derived from them are also wanting.

The defective verbs, are *beware, may, can, must, might, could, would, should, shall, ought* and *quoth*.

REMARK. *Ought* is not varied in familiar style, but in grave style *est* is annexed in the second person singular of the present indicative. *Ought* is sometimes used in the imperfect tense. *Quoth* is obsolete, except in ludicrous style, and is not varied. It is generally used in the imperfect tense in the third person with the nominative following it; as, *quoth he*. *Quoth* is supposed by some to be derived from *quod* which is sometimes used for *quoth* in old English works.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

§ 168. *Impersonal* Verbs are those which can be used only in the third person singular, from the nature of the subject to which they refer; as, *it rains, it snows, it thaws, it thunders, it lightens, it hails*. The pronoun *it* which is always joined to these verbs, represents no particular noun, but simply a state or condition of things.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

“The general gave orders to his soldiers.”

What part of speech is *gave*? § 120. Why? § 120. Conjugate it? § 166. Regular or irregular? § 129. Why? § 129. What kind? § 123. Why? § 123. What mode? § 133. Why? § 133. What tense? § 141. Why? § 141. What number? § 146. Why? § 146. What person? § 147. Why? § 147. What is its subject-nominative? *General*.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

Then Jesus said¹ unto them, Go² your way and tell³ John what things ye have seen³ and heard,³ how that the blind see.⁴ Saul hath¹⁰ slain³ his thousands. Till moons shall wax⁵ and wane no more. He treads⁴ the lonely halls. Think² on me when it shall be⁸ well with thee. He wore⁶ his cloak when I first beheld¹ him, but soon laid¹ it aside. But beware⁷ of men.

“Did you admire¹¹ my lamp, quoth⁷ he,
As much as I your minstrelsy.”

It rained⁹ violently. It thaws⁹ slowly to-day. It snows.

¹ § 166 and § 141.

⁵ § 144.

⁹ § 168.

² § 136 and R. 1.

⁶ § 133.

¹⁰ § 147, R. 11.

³ § 142.

⁷ § 167.

¹¹ § 134, and § 152, R. 2.

⁴ § 140.

⁸ § 141, R. 2.

QUESTIONS—*First Course.*

What are defective verbs? What are impersonal verbs? What does the pronoun *it* joined with these verbs represent? From what are verbs derived? What are the parts of speech called which are not inflected? Name them. How may we know to which of these parts, the different particles belong?

QUESTIONS—*Second Course.*

How many irregular and defective verbs are there? What do verbs, which formerly had *a* in the imperfect tense, now have? Give examples. Name some perfect participles, in which the termination *en* has become obsolescent. Instead of *ed*, what other termination is sometimes used? When is *ought* varied? When is *quoth* used?

PARTICLES.

§ 169. The parts of speech not inflected, are called *particles*. They consist of *adverbs*, *prepositions*, *conjunctions* and *interjections*. To which of these parts the different particles belong, depends much upon their construction in a sentence. The same particle may be an *adverb* in one construction, a *preposition* in another, and a *conjunction* in another.

ADVERBS.

§ 170. An adverb is a particle used to modify or limit the meaning of a *verb*, a *participle*, an *adjective* or another *adverb*; as, "James studies *diligently*;" "he is *remarkably* faithful."

§ 171. Adverbs may be divided into classes according to the nature of the modification denoted by them.

§ 172. There are *four classes* of adverbs; adverbs of *time*, of *manner*, of *place* and of *quantity*.

§ 173. Adverbs of *time* are those which answer to the question *when?* *how often?*

REMARK. Adverbs of time admit of the following subdivisions; viz.

1. Of *present time* ; as, *forthwith, immediately, instantly, now, presently, to-day.*

2. Of *past time* ; as, *ago, anciently, already, erewhile, formerly, heretofore, hitherto, lately, recently, since, yesterday.*

3. Of *future time* ; as, *by-and-by, ere long, henceforth, hereafter, soon, to-morrow.*

4. Of *absolute time* ; as, *always, ago, continually, eternally, ever, never, perpetually.*

5. Of *relative time* ; as, *after, as-far-as, as-soon-as, as-long-as, before, betimes, early, late, long, seasonably, till, then, until, when, while, whilst.*

6. Of *repeated time* ; as, *again, daily, ever-and-anon, frequently, monthly, now-and-then, occasionally, often, oft, once, rarely, seldom, sometimes, twice, thrice, weekly, yearly.*

7. Of *ordinal time* ; as, *first, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, etc.*

§ 174. Those adverbs which answer to the question, *how*, are called adverbs of *manner*.

REM. 1. These admit of the following subdivisions :

1. Of *affirmation* ; as, *aye, amen, doubtless, certainly, forsooth, indeed, surely, truly, undoubtedly, verily, yea, yes.*

2. Of *quality* ; as, *as-well-as, foolishly, unjustly, quickly, well, wisely, etc.*

3. Of *cause* ; as, *why, wherefore.*

4. Of *mode* ; as, *across, apart, asunder, else, however, howsoever, how, like, much, necessary, otherwise, particularly, so, somehow, thus, together.*

5. Of *doubt* ; as, *haply, perhaps, perchance, peradventure, possibly.*

6. Of *negation* ; as, *no, nay, not, nowise.*

REM. 2. When the following adverbs, *why, wherefore, where, whether, whence, whereto* and *whereunto* are used to ask questions, they are interrogatives, yet belong to the same classes under which they are arranged.

§ 175. Those adverbs which answer to the question *where, whither* or *whence*, are called adverbs of *place*.

REMARK. Adverbs of place, admit of the following subdivisions :

1. "Of place in which ;" as, *above, about, around, anywhere, below, elsewhere, everywhere, here, hereabout, nowhere, somewhere, thereabout, there, wherever, within, without, whereabout, where, herein, yonder.*

2. "Of place to which;" as, *backwards, back, down, downwards, forth, forwards, hither, in, inwards, thereunto, thereto, thither, where-to, whereunto, whither.*

3. "Of place from which;" as, *away, hence, out, thence, whence.*

4. "Of the order of place;" as, *first, second, thirdly, fourthly, fifthly.*

§ 176. Those adverbs which answer to the question *how much?* are called adverbs of *quantity*.

REM. 1. Adverbs of quantity admit of the following subdivisions:

1. "Of abundance or excess;" as, *altogether, all besides, chiefly, completely, clear, entirely, excessively, extravagantly, far, full, fully, generally, greatly, intolerably, immeasurably, inconceivably, infinitely.*

2. "Of deficiency or abatement;" as, *almost, barely, but, hardly, little, nearly, only, partly, partially, scarcely.*

3. "Of equality;" as, *even, enough, equally, sufficiently so.*

REM. 2. *Even, even-so, how, however* and *howsoever*, are adverbs of quantity, when they denote *in what degree*.

REM. 3. When *hence, now, since, still, then, when*, and *yet* denote relation of time, they are adverbs; but when they denote a connection of thought, they should be regarded as conjunctions.

REM. 4. *But*, used in the sense of *only*, is an adverb; but when it denotes *opposition*, it is a conjunction.

REM. 5. *However*, denoting *manner*, is an adverb; but, connection of thought, it is a conjunction.

CONNECTIVE ADVERBS.

§ 177. *Connective adverbs* are such as not only denote some relation of time, manner, place or quantity, but serve to connect propositions and sentences; as, "I left *when* he arrived." "I went *where* my father was buried." In these examples, *when* and *where* not only denote time and place but they serve to connect the sentences in which they are placed. The following particles are frequently used as *connective adverbs*, as, *as-well-as, again, also, after, as, besides, before, ere, else, even, hence, otherwise, since, so, so-as, then, thence, till, until, when, where, while* or *whilst*.

REM. 1. When any of the above particles denote connection of thought, they should be parsed as conjunctions.

REM. 2. Some adverbs modify equally two verbs in different propositions; as, "I reside in the northern regions, *where* the sun seldom warms the earth with his genial rays."

REM. 3. When prepositions are annexed to the adverbs *where* and *there*, they are substitutes for pronouns; as, *wherein* for *in which*; *therein* for *in that*; *whereby* for *by which*; *thereby* for *by that*; *thereto* for *to that*; *whereto* and *whereunto* for *to what*. Such compounds are not generally used by modern writers, but are mostly found in ancient productions.

MODIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

§ 178. *Adverbs* are modified only by the degrees of comparison. A few adverbs are compared regularly like adjectives, thus :

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Long,	longer,	longest.
Soon,	sooner,	soonest.
Often,	oftener,	oftenest.
Wisely,	more wisely,	most wisely.
Justly,	more justly,	most justly.
Justly,	less justly,	least justly.

REM. 1. Some adverbs are compared irregularly, thus :

Far,	farther,	farthest.
Badly or ill,	worse,	worst.
Little,	less,	least.
Much,	more,	most.
Forth,	further,	furthest.
Well or good,	better,	best.

REM. 2. Adverbs of quality generally admit comparison by prefixing the comparatives *more* and *most*, *less* or *least*; as, *more discreetly*, *most discreetly*; *more wickedly*, *most wickedly*; *less culpably*, *least culpably*. In these cases, however, the degree of comparison belongs to the adverb prefixed, and therefore they should be parsed separately. The same should be done with respect to adjectives thus compared.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

"The matter will *presently* be decided."

What part of speech is *presently*? § 171. Why? § 171. What

kind of an adverb? § 174. Why? § 174. What does it modify? *Will be decided.*

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

When¹ did Frederic the Great die? To-day,² if ye will hear his voice, harden not your hearts. She went away yesterday.² That circumstance occurred seasonably.² The periodical is published monthly.³ It now and then happens favorably.⁴ Secondly,² we will consider what duty requires. The suggestions of inclination are sometimes³ for the dictates of conscience. You read too⁵ little.⁵ He conducted very⁵ improperly.⁴ I see him often,³ but my brother sees him oftener.⁶ He swam quite⁷ across the river. The more⁸ frequently³ you read with care, the more⁸ you will improve. When⁹ thou callest, I will answer thee. They doubted whereunto¹⁰ this would grow.

QUESTIONS—First Course.

What is an adverb? How may adverbs be divided into classes? How many classes are there? What are they? What is an adverb of time? Of manner? Of place? Of quantity? What are adverbial conjunctions? What particles may be used as adverbial conjunctions? How are adverbs modified? How are they compared?

QUESTIONS—Second Course.

Of how many subdivisions will adverbs of time admit? Name them. Of how many subdivisions will adverbs of manner admit? Repeat them. When are the adverbs *why*, *wherefore*, *where*, *whether*, *whence*, *whereto*, and *whereunto* used as interrogatives? What subdivisions do the adverbs of place admit of? What subdivisions do the adverbs of quantity admit of? When are *even*, *even so*, *how*, *however* and *howsoever* adverbs of quantity? When are *hence*, *now*, *since*, *still*, *then*, *when* and *yet* adverbs, and when conjunctions? When is *however* an adverb? When is *but* an adverb? When any of the particles mentioned in § 179 denote connection of thought, what are they called? Can adverbs ever modify two verbs in different propositions? Under what circumstances are *where* and *there* substitutes for pronouns?

¹ § 174, Rem. 2.

² § 173.

³ § 173, 6.

⁴ § 174.

⁵ § 176.

⁶ § 178.

⁷ § 176.

⁸ § 179,

⁹ § 177.

¹⁰ § 177, Rem. 3.

Name some adverbs which are compared irregularly. How may adverbs of quality admit of comparison?

PREPOSITIONS.

§ 179. "A *preposition* is a particle which expresses the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word; as, "I went *to* New York." "A book lies *before* me."—*Andrews and Stoddard*.

REM. 1. Prepositions are so called, because they are placed before the nouns or pronouns expressed or implied which they govern.

REM. 2. A preposition expresses a relation between two terms called the *antecedent* and *subsequent* term. The *antecedent* term may be an *adverb*, *adjective*, *participle*, *verb*, *noun* or *pronoun*, and the *subsequent* may be a *noun* or *pronoun*; as, "James *went* from *London to York*." Here the verb *went* is the antecedent term, and the two nouns *London* and *York* are the subsequents; *from* denoting the relation between *London* and *went*, and *to* denoting the relation between *went* and *York*.

LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

Above,	between,	over-against,
about,	betwixt,	past,
aboard,	beyond,	round,
according-to,	by,	respecting,
across,	but,	save, saving,
after,	concerning,	since,
against,	down,	through,
along,	during,	throughout,
amid,	except,	till,
amidst,	excepting,	to,
among,	from-beneath,	together-with,
amongst,	from-before,	touching,
around,	for,	toward,
as-to,	from-among,	towards,
aside-from,	from,	under,
at,	instead-of,	undermost,
athwart,	in,	until,
before,	into,	unto,
behind,	notwithstanding,	up,
below,	of,	upon,
beneath,	on,	with,
beside,	out-of,	within,
besides,	over,	without.

REM. 1. The words in the above list are prepositions, when they have a subsequent term of relation expressed or implied; but when they have none, they are adverbs or conjunctions; except when some of them are affixed to verbs and form a part of a compound verb. See § 129, R. 4.

REM. 2. *But* is a preposition when it has the meaning of *except* or *aside from*; as, "All went *but* James," i. e. *except* or *aside from* James. "All *but* the nightingale gazed with joy."

REM. 3. Nouns or subsequent terms are frequently understood after prepositions. Also the antecedent is often understood.

REM. 4. Two prepositions sometimes occur together and form compound prepositions; as, *according-to*, *out-of*, *as-to*.

REM. 5. Two prepositions sometimes come together and are not parsed as compound prepositions, but a noun of place or some other noun is understood between them; as, *from beneath*, i. e. *from* the place beneath; *from above*, *from before*, *from behind*, *from among*.

REM. 6. *In* is generally placed before the names of countries, cities and large towns; as, "He dwelt *in* France." "He lives *in* Edinburgh." "He resides *in* New York."

REM. 7. *Into* is generally used after verbs of motion; as, "He went *into* the city."

REM. 8. *At* is used before the names of villages, single houses and cities which are distant; as, "He resides *at* Andover." "He boards *at* the Astor House."

REM. 9. *During* is used when the action or state continues through the whole period of time mentioned; as, "I have performed much labor *during* this week." But when the action or state does not continue through the whole period of time mentioned, *in* or *within* should be used; as, "There have been twenty lectures *within* or *in* twenty-four hours."

REM. 10. *Between* and *betwixt* refer to two nouns only; as, "There was great friendship *between* David and Jonathan."

REM. 11. *Among*, *amongst*, *amid* and *amidst* refer to more than two nouns.

REM. 12. *Except* and *save* are prepositions when they denote the same as *aside from* or *without*; as, "All the family rode out this afternoon *except* or *save* James."

"——Pride no worth allows,

Save what from riches or dominion flows."

Some have considered *except* and *save* in the construction

above as verbs in the imperative mode. But as they imply in such a construction neither command nor exhortation, I see no reason for thus classifying them.

REM. 13. *Except* and *save* sometimes govern a part or the whole of a succeeding clause or sentence; as, "*Save* that the Holy Ghost witnesseth in every city, saying, that bonds and afflictions abide me." Acts 20: 23.

REM. 14. Sometimes a part of the proposition which *save* governs, is implied; as, "But God forbid that I should glory, *save* [*that I should glory*] in the cross of Christ." Gal. 6: 14. "Let them not meet this sea without a shore! *save* [*that they meet*] in an ark."—*Byron*.

REM. 15. *Excepting* and *saving* are generally used like *except* and *save*.

REM. 16. Prepositions are sometimes construed as adverbs when they follow a verb; as, "*Go on*." "*Go to*."

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

"He rode *with* us."

What part of speech is *with*? § 179. Why? § 179. Between what words does it show a relation? Between *rode* and *us*. § 179, REM. 2.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

The summit is above¹ the region of storms. The boat sailed across the river. The Greeks marched boldly against the foe. A meteor shot athwart¹ the heavens. Aside-from¹ this, I should have no objection to your going to¹ the place. Hell from beneath² is moved to meet thee at thy coming. A good understanding existed between³ them. He stood like a rock amid⁴ ocean's wild waves. They all prospered save⁵ the eldest.

"I feel like one who treads alone
Some banquet hall deserted,—
Whose lights are fled, whose garlands, dead,
And all but⁶ me departed."—*T. Moore*.

QUESTIONS—*First Course*.

What is a preposition?

¹ § 179.

² § 179, R. 5.

³ § 179, R. 10.

⁴ § 179, R. 11.

⁵ § 179, R. 12.

⁶ § 179, R. 2.

QUESTIONS—*Second Course.*

Why are prepositions so called? What does a preposition express? Give an instance where a *verb* is antecedent to two subsequent terms, and explain it. When are the words, given in the list, prepositions? When is *but* a preposition? Are nouns frequently understood after prepositions? Give an example. Do two prepositions ever occur together? Where is *in* generally placed? How is *into* used? When is *during* used? To what do *between* and *betwixt* refer? To what do *among*, *amongst*, *amid* and *amidst* refer? When are *except* and *save* prepositions? Do *except* and *save* ever govern a part or a whole sentence? Give an instance. Give an example where a part of the preposition, which *save* governs, is implied? How are *except* and *saving* used?

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 180. *Conjunctions* are particles that connect words, propositions or sentences.

§ 181. Conjunctions are divided into six classes, according to their meaning; the *copulative*, the *disjunctive*, the *adversative*, the *conditional*, the *causal*, and the *final*.

§ 182. The *copulative* conjunctions connect those things that are considered together; as, *and*, *both*.

REM. 1. *And* means *add*; as, "The book is worth four shillings *and* sixpence;" or, with sixpence *added*.

REM. 2. *Both* is often placed before the first of two nouns that are to be connected, to mark the connection more forcibly.

§ 183. *Disjunctive* conjunctions connect those things that are considered separately; as, *either*, *or*, *neither*, *nor*, *than* and *as*; as, "For I am persuaded that *neither* death, *nor* life, *nor* angels, *nor* principalities, *nor* things present, *nor* things to come, *nor* height, *nor* depth, *nor* any other creature, shall be able to separate us from the love of God."

REM. 1. In poetry *or* is used instead of *either* corresponding with *or*, for the convenience of measure; as,

"The dam assiduous sets

Not to be tempted from her task

Or [*either*] by sharp hunger or by smooth delight."

REM. 2. *Nor* is used frequently in like manner ; as,

“Again he comes ; *nor* dart *nor* lance avail,
Nor the wild plunging of the tortured horse ;
 Though man and man's avenging arms assail,
 Vain are his weapons, vainer is his force.”

Childe Harold, Canto I, Stanza 77.

REM. 3. *As* is sometimes used as a copulative conjunction ; as, “He as a patriot deserves praise.”

§ 184. *Adversative* conjunctions express opposition ; as, *but, notwithstanding, nevertheless, yet, still.*

REM. 1. *But*, regarded as a connective, usually denotes opposition.

REM. 2. *Yet* and *still* are conjunctions when they denote connection of *thought*, and adverbs when they express relation of *time*.

§ 185. *Conditional* conjunctions denote suspension or doubt ; as, *if, though, although, unless, except, perhaps, peradventure, lest, whether, provided that.*

REM. 1. *But* and *that* sometimes occur together, and denote condition or doubt.

§ 186. *Causal* conjunctions denote cause or reason ; as, *for, because, as, since, whereas, seeing that, forasmuch as, inasmuch as.*

REM. 1. *As* and *since* are causal conjunctions when they denote *cause*.

REM. 2. *For* and *that* sometimes occur together, and are construed as a causal conjunction.

§ 187. *Final* conjunctions denote purpose, object, or result of a preceding proposition ; as, *that, so that, therefore, wherefore, and now and then* when they denote a connection of thought between the preceding and subsequent propositions.

REM. 1. When *so that* occur together, sometimes the particle *so* is taken as an adverb, and qualifies a word in the preceding proposition ; as, “Common sense, I say again, would combine *practice* with *theory*, *so* (in such a manner) that the teacher knowing the conformity between thought and vocal language, may not only express this conformity by his own voice, but explain

it to his pupils. So here is an adverb of manner, and modifies *combine*.”—*Porter’s Rhet. Read.*

REM. 2. When *so* and *that* occur together, and simply denote the meaning of *that* as a final conjunction, they are parsed together as a final conjunction; as, “He cried aloud, *so that* [to the end *that*] some one might come to his relief.”

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

“Ye call me Master *and* Lord.”

What part of speech is *and*? § 180. Why? § 180. What kind? § 182. Why? § 182. What does it connect? *Master and Lord.*

EXAMPLES IN PARSING.

I saw the dead, both¹ small and¹ great, stand before God.—*Bible.* Mercy is better than² sacrifice. Furthermore,³ the policy of this measure is very questionable. Did he go or⁴ stay? He was either⁴ ashamed or⁴ afraid. He could neither⁴ do it himself, nor⁴ procure any one to do it for him. External things are naturally variable, but⁵ truth and reason are always the same. Notwithstanding⁵ his indolence, he appears to have effected much. Though⁶ he slay me, yet will I trust in him. He removed his camp since⁷ the enemy had cut off his supplies. They landed at the island⁸ that they might procure water.

QUESTIONS—First Course.

What is a conjunction? How are conjunctions divided? Name the different classes. What is a copulative conjunction? Disjunctive? Adversative? Conditional? Final?

QUESTIONS—Second Course.

What does *and* mean? What does *than* denote? In poetry how is *or* used? *Nor*? What does *but* denote? When are *yet* and *still* conjunctions? When are *as* and *since* conjunctions? When *so that* occur together, how are they sometimes parsed? When is the phrase *so that* a final conjunction?

¹ § 182, Rem. 2.

² § 183.

³ § 182.

⁴ § 183.

⁵ § 184.

⁶ § 185.

⁷ § 186.

⁸ § 187.

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 189. *Interjections* are words uttered to express some sudden or strong feeling of the mind ; as, “ *Oh !* I have alienated my friend ;” “ *Alas !* I fear for life ;” “ *O* virtue ! how amiable thou art !”

§ 190. They may be divided into *sixteen classes* according to the kind of feelings they generally express :

1. Of joy ; as, *eigh ! hey ! io !*
2. Of grief or sorrow ; as, *ah ! alas ! alack ! oh ! welladay !*
3. Of surprise ; as, *oh ! ha ! hah ! what !*
4. Of astonishment ; as, *ha ! heigh ! indeed ! prodigious ! really ! strange !*
5. Of exultation ; as, *aha ! huzza ! heyday ! hurrah !*
6. Of calling attention ; as, *lo !*
7. Of requesting silence ; as, *whist ! hist ! mum !*
8. Of aversion ; as, *awaunt ! away ! begone ! poh ! fie ! off !*
9. Of contempt ; as, *fudge ! hugh ! poh ! pshaw ! pish ! tush ! tut !*
10. Of pain ; as, *ah ! oh ! eh !*
11. Of calling aloud ; as, *ho ! soho ! hollo !*
12. Of laughter ; as, *ha ! ha ! haha !*
13. Of stopping ; as, *avast ! whoh !*
14. Of wishing ; as, *oh !*
15. Of languor ; as, *heigh-ho !*
16. Of salutation ; as, *all-hail ! hail ! welcome !*

REM. 1. The words *behold, hark, bah, see* and *hail*, should be considered as verbs in the imperative mode and not interjections as some suppose. The strongest feelings may be expressed by command or exclamations. *Come, go, rise, hasten, fly*, etc., might be construed as interjections with as much propriety as *look, see*, etc.

REM. 2. The following remarks from Murray's grammar will illustrate still farther the object and use of interjections.

“ Interjections are not so much the signs of thought, as of feeling. That a creature so inured to articulate sound as man is, should acquire the habit of uttering, without reflection, certain vocal sounds, when he is assaulted by any strong passion, or becomes conscious of any intense feeling, is natural enough.

Indeed, by continual practice, this habit becomes so powerful, that, in certain cases, we should find it difficult to resist it, even if we wished to do so. When attacked by acute pain, it is hardly possible for us to refrain from saying oh! ah! etc.; and when we are astonished at any narrative or event, the words strange! prodigious! indeed! break from us, without any effort of the will. Interjections, though frequent in discourse, do not often occur in elegant composition. Unpractised writers, however, are apt to abound in the use of them, in order, as they imagine, to give pathos to their style, which is nearly the same as if, with the view of rendering conversation witty or humorous, one were to interrupt it with frequent peals of laughter. The appearance of violent emotion in others, does not always raise violent emotion in us; our hearts, for the most part, are more effectually subdued, by a sedate and simple utterance, than by strong interjections and theatrical gesture. At any rate, composure is more graceful than extravagance; and therefore, a multitude of these passionate words and particles will generally, at least on common occasions, savor more of levity than of dignity, of want of thought than of keen sensation. This holds in common discourse, as well as in writing. They who wish to speak often, and have little to say, are apt to abound in exclamations; *wonderful, amazing, prodigious, O dear, dear me, surprising, astonishing*, and the like; and hence the too frequent use of such words tends to breed a suspicion that one labors under a scantiness of ideas. Interjections denoting imprecation, and those in which the Divine name is irreverently mentioned, are always offensive to a pious mind; and the writer or speaker, who contracts a habit of introducing them, may without breach of charity, be suspected of profaneness.”—Vol. I. page 129.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

“O the bliss, the pain of dying!”

What part of speech is *O*? § 189. Why? § 189.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

Alas! I am ruined! O! that they were wise! Hurrah for the President! Hark!¹ I thought I heard the tramp of horses. Really,¹ you are in a fine situation! What! could ye not watch one hour?

¹ § 189.

QUESTIONS—*First Course.*

What is an interjection? How are they divided? Name the different classes.

QUESTIONS—*Second Course.*

How should the words *behold*, *hark*, *bah*, *see* and *hail* be considered? Give the substance of the remarks contained in the extract from Murray's Grammar.

DERIVATION.

§ 191. Derivation is that part of Etymology that explains the manner in which derivative words are formed from their primitives.

DERIVATION OF ARTICLES.

§ 192. The articles are derived as follows:

1. *The* is from the Saxon *the* which is from *thran*, *to take*. It has nearly the same meaning as *this* or *that*.
2. *An* is from the Saxon *an* or *ane*, denoting *one*.

DERIVATION OF NOUNS.

§ 193. Nouns are derived from verbs, nouns, adjectives and participles,

1. By annexing *er* or *or*, denoting office; as, *print*, *printer*; *collect*, *collector*.

2. By changing *e* final into *or*, denoting employment; as, *distribute*, *distributor*.

3. By changing the termination of the verb into *ation*, *ition*, *sion*, *tion*, *ce* or *se*; as, *denominate*, *denomination*; *oppose*, *opposition*; *commit*, *commission*; *inflict*, *infliction*; *pretend*, *pretence*; *expand*, *expansion*.

4. By annexing *age*, *ance*, *ment* or *ure*; as, *dote*, *dotage*; *depart*, *departure*; *command*, *commandment*; *deliver*, *deliverance*.

5. Nouns and verbs are sometimes spelled alike, and distinguished only by pronunciation; as, *désert*, *desert*; *rècord*, *record*. In other cases their spelling and pronunciation are alike, and they are distinguished only by the sense of the passage; as, *measure*, *to measure*; *cry*, *to cry*.

REM. 1. Nouns are formed from nouns,

1. By annexing *ery*, *ry* or *y*, denoting habit or situation of life; as, *knave*, *knavery*; *cutler* *cutlery*; *fool*, *foolery*.

2. By annexing *dom*, *head*, *rick* or *ship*, denoting office, character or dominion; as, *king*, *kingdom*; *block*, *blockhead*; *bishop*, *bishoprick*; *lady*, *ladyship*.

3. By annexing *ian*, denoting profession; as, *physic*, *physician*.

4. By annexing *bin*, *erel*, *nel*, *kin*, *ulet* or *ling*, denoting diminution; as, *cock*, *cockerel*; *bob*, *bobbin*; *tun*, *tunnel*; *river*, *rivulet*.

5. By annexing *ade* or *age*; as, *lemon*, *lemonade*; *cord*, *cordage*.

6. By annexing *ist*, denoting those that are devoted to the subject denoted by the primitive.

7. By prefixing an adjective or another noun, and thus forming a compound noun; as; *holy*, *holy-rood*; *sea*, *sea-weed*.

REM. 2. Nouns are formed from adjectives;

1. By changing *t* into *ce* or *cy*; as, *brilliant*, *brilliance*, *brilliancy*.

2. By annexing *done*, *hood*, *ist*, *ity*, *ness*, *ship*; as, *wise*, *wisdom*; *false*, *falsehood*; *loyal*, *loyalist*; *manly*, *manliness*; *hard*, *hardship*.

3. By changing, in some cases, some of the letters and annexing *th*; as, *warm*, *warmth*; *high*, *height*; *long*, *length*; *true*, *truth*.

DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 194. Adjectives are derived from verbs, participles, adjectives or verbs.

REM. 1. Adjectives are derived from verbs,

1. By annexing *able*, *ible*, *ive*, *ory* or *tory*, and sometimes changing some of the letters; as, *note*, *notable*; *solve*, *solvable*; *interrogate*, *interrogatory*; *console*, *consolatory*.

2. By prefixing *un*, or a word which is not a part of the verb from which the participle is derived; as, *learned*, *unlearned*; *faring*, *way-faring*; *creating*, *all-creating*.

REM. 2. Adjectives are derived from adjectives,

1. By annexing *ish*, *some*, *ly* or *y*; as, *red*, *reddish*; *glad*, *glad-some*; *true*, *truly*; *swarth*, *swarthy*.

2. By prefixing *dis*, *in* or *un*; as, *similar*, *dissimilar*; *true*, *untrue*; *consistent*, *inconsistent*.

REM. 3. Adjectives are derived from nouns,

1. By annexing *able, ible, less, en, some, ish, ly, ful, al, eous, ious, ous, ic, ical, ine, ly, y*, and sometimes omitting or changing some of the final letters; as, *reason, reasonable; access, accessible; name, nameless; oak, oaken; toil, toilsome; knave, knavish; youth, youthful; notion, notional; right, righteous; glory, glorious; villain, villainous; democrat, democratical; adamant, adamantine; rock, rocky.*

2. By annexing *ed*; as, *saint, sainted.*

3. Nouns frequently become adjectives without change of form; as, *gold, gold leaf.*

4. Adjectives derived from proper names terminate in various ways; as, *Newton, Newtonian; Cicero, Ciceronian.*

DERIVATION OF PRONOUNS.

§ 195. All the pronouns are derived from the Saxon. They are derived as follows.

<i>Eng.</i>	<i>Sax.</i>	<i>Eng.</i>	<i>Sax.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> I,	ie,	<i>Nom.</i> we,	us,
<i>Poss.</i> my or mine,	min,	<i>Poss.</i> our or ours,	ure,
<i>Obj.</i> me.	me.	<i>Obj.</i> us.	us.
<i>Nom.</i> thou,	thu,	<i>Nom.</i> ye or you,	
<i>Poss.</i> thy or thine,	thin,	<i>Poss.</i> your or yours,	eower,
<i>Obj.</i> thee.	the.	<i>Obj.</i> you.	eow.
<i>Nom.</i> he,	he,	<i>Nom.</i> they,	thæge,
<i>Poss.</i> his,	hys,	<i>Poss.</i> their or theirs,	her or theora,
<i>Obj.</i> him.	him.	<i>Obj.</i> them.	hem.
<i>Nom.</i> she,	heo,	<i>Nom.</i> they,	thæge,
<i>Poss.</i> her or hers,	hera or hyra,	<i>Poss.</i> their or theirs,	her or theora,
<i>Obj.</i> her.	her.	<i>Obj.</i> them.	hem.
<i>Nom.</i> it,	hit,	<i>Nom.</i> they,	thæge,
<i>Poss.</i> its,	hyr,	<i>Poss.</i> their or theirs,	he or theora,
<i>Obj.</i> it.	hit.	<i>Obj.</i> them.	hem.

DERIVATION OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

<i>Eng.</i>	<i>Sax.</i>	<i>Eng.</i>	<i>Sax.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> who,	hwo,	which,	whiche,
<i>Poss.</i> whose,	whos,	which,	whos,
<i>Obj.</i> whom,	whom,	which,	whiche,
<i>Nom.</i> that,	thoet or that.	what.	hwat.
this.	this.		

DERIVATION OF VERBS.

§ 196. Verbs are derived either from *nouns*, *adjectives* or *verbs*.

I. Verbs are derived from nouns.

1. Verbs are formed from nouns by annexing the termination *ize* ; as, *method*, *methodize* ; *system*, *systemize* ; *moral*, *moralize*. When the primitive ends with a vowel, the consonant *t* is prefixed to the termination ; as, *stigma*, *stigmatize*.

2. By annexing *en* ; as, *length*, *lengthen* ; *height*, *heighten*.

3. By annexing *ate* ; as, *origin*, *originate*.

4. By changing a consonant ; as, *advise*, *advise*.

5. By annexing *e* mute ; as, *breath*, *breathe* ; *bath*, *bathe*.

6. By annexing *fy*, and changing *u* into *i* and dropping *m* ; as, *stratum*, *stratify*.

II. Verbs are derived from adjectives,

1. By annexing *ate* ; as, *domestic*, *domesticate*.

2. By annexing *en* or *n* ; as, *deep*, *deepen* ; *wide*, *widen*.

3. By annexing *ize* ; as, *civil*, *civilize*.

4. By annexing *fy*, and dropping *e* mute ; as, *brute*, *brutify*.

5. By prefixing *to* ; as, *warm*, *to warm* ; *lame*, *to lame* ; *cool*, *to cool* ; *dry*, *to dry* ; *forward*, *to forward*.

III. Verbs are derived from verbs,

By prefixing *a*, *be*, *dis*, *for*, *fore*, *mis*, *over*, *out*, *un*, *under*, *up* and *with* ; as, *rise*, *arise* ; *sprinkle*, *besprinkle* ; *own*, *disown* ; *bid*, *forbid* ; *see*, *foresee* ; *take*, *mistake* ; *look*, *overlook* ; *run*, *outrun* ; *fasten*, *unfasten* ; *go*, *undergo* ; *hold*, *uphold* ; *draw*, *withdraw*.

(For the derivation of participles, see Etymology, p. 90, § 153, Rem. 1.)

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

§ 197. Adverbs are derived from adjectives, and sometimes from participles and nouns, by annexing *ly* ; as, *grateful*, *gratefully* ; *loving*, *lovingly* ; *connected*, *connectedly*. *Ly* is a contraction of *like*, anciently written *lie* ; as, *sweetlike*, *sweetlie*, *sweetly*. Most of the adverbs of manner are thus formed.

REM. 1. *Very* is derived from the French *vrai*, or the Latin *verus*, denoting *true*.—*Dr. Webster*. *Rather* is the comparative of the ancient *rath*, soon.

REM. 2. Many adverbs are compounded of two or more En-

glish words ; as, *always, already, elsewhere, herein, otherwise, sometimes, to-day, thereby, wherewithal*, etc.

DERIVATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

§ 198. The prepositions are supposed to be derived as follows :

1. *About* is from the Saxon *abutan*, and generally denotes *around*.
2. *Above* is from the Saxon *abufan*, and denotes *preeminence* in point of place, rank, etc.
3. *Across* is from the English *a* denoting *at*, and the noun *cross*, and denotes *at cross*.
4. *After* is the comparative of *aft*, and denotes *behind, in the rears*.
5. *Against* is from *logeanes*, and denotes *opposition*.
6. *Along* is from *a* and *long*, denoting *at long*.
7. *Amid* is from *a* and *mid*, and denotes *middle*.
8. *Amidst* is from *a* and *midst*, and denotes *at midst*.
9. *Among* is abbreviated from *amongst*.
10. *Amongst* is from *a* and the Saxon particle *mongst*, denoting *mixed*.
11. *Around* is from *a* and *round*, and denotes *encircling*.
12. *At* is from the Saxon *aet*, and denotes *nearness* or *presence*.
13. *Athwart* is from *a* and *thwart*, and denotes *across*.
14. *Before* is from *be* and *fore*, and denotes *in front*.
15. *Behind* is from the Saxon *behindan*, and denotes *at the back of another*.
16. *Below* is from *be* and *low*, and denotes *under*.
17. *Beneath* is from *be* and *neath*, and denotes *below*.
18. *Beside* is from *be* and *side*, and denotes *moreover* when used as a conjunction.
19. *Besides* is from *be* and *sides*, and denotes *over and above*.
20. *Between* is from the Saxon *betweenan*, and denotes *intermediate*.
21. *Betwixt* is from the Saxon *betwyz*, and denotes *between*.
22. *Beyond* is from the Saxon *beyeond*, and denotes *gone by*.
23. *By* is from the Saxon *big* or *be*.
24. *Concerning* is from the present participle of the verb *to concern*.
25. *Down* is from *dun*, and denotes *descent*.
26. *During* is from an old verb *dure*, and denotes *continuing*.

27. *Except* is from the verb *to except*, and denotes *aside from*.
28. *Excepting* is a present participle of the same verb, but has acquired a different meaning in some cases.
29. *For* is from the Saxon *for* or *fore*, and generally denotes *cause* or *instead of*.
30. *From* is from the Saxon *fram*, denoting *beginning*.
31. *In* is from the Latin *in*.
32. *Into* is composed of *in* and *to*.
33. *Of* is from the Saxon *of*.
34. *Off* is from the Dutch *af*.
35. *On* is from the German *an*.
36. *Out of* is composed of *out* and *of*.
37. *Over* is from the Saxon *ober*.
38. *Through* is from the Saxon *thurh*.
39. *Throughout* is composed of *through* and *out*.
40. *Till* is from the Saxon *til*, denoting *the end*.
41. *To* is from the Saxon *to*.
42. *Towards* is composed of *to* and *ward*, signifying *to look*.
43. *Under* is from the Saxon *under*, meaning on the *under side*.
44. *Underneath* is composed of *under* and *neath*.
45. *Until* is composed of *un* and *til*.
46. *Unto* is composed of *un* and *to*.
47. *Up* is from the Saxon *up*.
48. *Upon* is composed of *up* and *on*.
49. *With* is from the Saxon *with*.
50. *Within* is composed of *with* and *in*.
51. *Without* is composed of *with* and *out*.

REMARK. There are some words occasionally used as prepositions, not included in the above list.

DERIVATION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 199. The most of the conjunctions are derived from the Saxon. For information upon this subject, the author is principally indebted to Horne Tooke and Dr. Webster. The following remarks upon the derivation of conjunctions, are believed to be usually correct.

1. *Although* is derived from the Saxon *eal*, denoting *all*, and *though* the imperative of *thah* or *thrah*, denoting *give*, *grant* or *allow*. The meaning is, Grant or allow all the nature of the case requires.

2. *An*, used in some ancient authors, denotes *if* or *whether* ;

and is probably derived from the imperative *gif*, which is from *gifan*, to give or grant.

3. *And* is derived from *and* or *anad*, the imperative of *ananad*, and means to add.

4. *As* is probably contracted from the German *als*, and is used as an adverbial conjunction when it denotes comparison, proportion or time, but as a conjunction when it denotes simply a connection of thought; as, "*As* he has no means of support, I will regard him *as* an object of beneficence."

5. *Because* is derived from *be* and *cause*, equivalent to *by* and *cause*, and denotes *cause* or *reason*.

6. *Both* is derived from *butea*, *butwa* or *butwe*, and denotes *two* considered as distinct from others. When used as a connective, it is generally used before a couplet of nouns, adjectives or verbs, for the purpose of intensity; as, "I have *both* counseled and entreated him to reform."

7. *But* may be derived from two different words, which denote different meanings; as,

(1) From *butau*, denoting *without*, *excepting*; hence it sometimes has the nature of a preposition.

(2) From *bate*, denoting *addition*, *reparation*. It has, however, acquired a meaning somewhat modified from the original, and is used generally before sentences or clauses to denote that an opposite sentiment is expressed by it.

8. *Either* is derived from *oegther*, and when it is a conjunction it serves to disjoin. When it is used before a couplet united by *or* it makes the distinction more obvious.

9. *Except* is contracted from *excepted*, and generally denotes *unless* when used as a conjunction.

10. *For* is derived from *for*, and denotes *cause* or *reason*.

11. *If* is derived from *gif* the imperative of *gifan*, and denotes *grant* or *allow*.

12. *Lest* is derived from *lested* the perfect participle of *lesan*, which signifies *to dismiss*.

13. *Neither* is derived from *ne* and *either*, and denotes *not either*.

14. *Nor* is derived from *ne* and *or*, and has a negative sense.

15. *Notwithstanding* is formed by the English participle *and not*, and denotes *not opposing*, but it is usually placed before a sentence or clause that expresses an opposite or different sentiment.

16. *Or* is derived from *other*, and marks an alternative.

17. *Since* is derived from *since*, and denotes *seeing*, or *seeing that*.

18. *Than* is from *thanne*, and is used to introduce the last part of a comparison.

19. *That* is from *thart* the perfect participle of *thran*, to *take*.

20. *Though* is from *thofig* the imperative of *thofigan*, to *allow*.

21. *Unless* is from *unles* the imperative of *anleson*, and means *except*.

22. *Yet* is from *get*, the imperative of *geton*, and means *to get*, but usually placed before a clause that denotes opposition.

DERIVATION OF INTERJECTIONS.

REMARK. The derivation of interjections in many cases is attended with so much doubt and obscurity, and a labored exhibition of their derivation is of so little importance, that the author passes the subject, simply referring the student to the section on Interjections. See §§ 189, 190.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

§ 200. *Syntax* teaches the rules for constructing propositions or sentences.

The construction of sentences depends on *agreement*, *relation*, *position* and *government*.

The *relation* of words is their dependence or connection according to the sense.

“The *position* of a word is its place in the sentence.”

The *agreement* of words is their correspondence, in *person*, *number*, *gender*, *case* or *mode*.

Government in grammar, is the power which one part of speech has over another to cause it to be of some particular *person*, *gender*, *case* or *mode*.

PRINCIPLES OF ANALYSIS.

§ 201. A *proposition* or *sentence* consists of a subject and predicate.

The *subject* of a proposition is that with respect to which something is commanded, supposed, interrogated or affirmed ; as, “Go *thou*.” “If *he* can go.” “*He* goes.” Here *thou* and *he* are the subjects.

The *predicate* denotes that which is commanded, supposed, interrogated or affirmed with respect to the subject ; as, “*Know* *thou* ;” “if *he know* ;” “*he knows* ;” “does *he know* ?” Here the word *know* is the *predicate*.

SUBJECT.

§ 201. “The subject is either grammatical or logical”

REM. 1. The term *grammatical*, when applied to the subject and predicate of a proposition, refers only to their construction according to the rules of grammar.

REM. 2. The term *logical*, when applied to the subject and predicate of a proposition, refers simply to the entire thought or idea expressed by the principal and qualifying terms of the proposition.

§ 202. The *grammatical* subject is a noun or something that supplies its place ; as, “The *tree* falls.” “The *man* is happy.” “*Who* lives virtuously ?” In the first proposition *tree* is the grammatical subject ; in the last two, *man* and *who* are the grammatical subjects.

§ 203. The *logical* subject is the grammatical subject with its various modifying terms ; as, “*A wise son* maketh a glad father.” In this example, *son* is the grammatical subject, and *a wise son* the logical subject. Abstract the *noun* from the qualifying term, and the proposition, “*A son* maketh a glad father,” would by no means be universally true.

REM. 1. When the logical subject has no modifying terms, it is the same as the grammatical.

REM. 2. A verb in the infinitive mode, with its modifiers, is sometimes used as the grammatical and logical subject ; as, “*To deceive a friend* is cruel.” Here, *to deceive* is the grammati-

cal subject, and to *deceive a friend*, i. e. the infinitive with its qualifying term *friend*, is the logical subject.

REM. 3. Also a *sentence* is sometimes the grammatical and logical subject; as, “*That anything can exist without existing in space*, is to my mind incomprehensible.” Here the simple proposition, *thing can exist*, is the grammatical subject. The simple proposition with its qualifying terms, “*That any without existing in space*,” is the logical subject.

REM. 4. When the infinitive is the subject of a proposition, the simple infinitive is the grammatical subject, and the infinitive with its qualifying terms, the logical subject.

REM. 5. When a sentence is the subject of a proposition, the simple proposition is the grammatical subject, and the simple proposition with its qualifying terms, is the logical subject; as, “*That the path of duty is safest*, is doubtless true.” Here the simple proposition, *path is*, is the grammatical subject; and the whole clause in italics is the logical subject.

§ 204. “The subject is either simple or compound.”

§ 205. A *simple* subject is a single noun or a word that supplies its place, either alone or variously modified; as, “The *earth* is round.” “A virtuous *man* is always worthy of trust.”

§ 206. “A *compound* subject consists of two or more simple subjects to which one predicate belongs;” as, “*Virtue and happiness* are inseparably connected.”

SUBJECT MODIFIED.

§ 207. The *grammatical subject* is modified by words that describe, explain, limit, or in any way affect its meaning.

§ 208. The grammatical subject is modified as follows.

1. By a noun in apposition, used to explain or describe it; as, “Luther, the *reformer*.” “Cicero, the *orator*.”

2. By a noun sustaining a relation to it expressed by a preposition; as, “A man of *wisdom* seldom acts foolishly.”

3. By an adjective, participle and participial adjective; as, “A *wise* child honoreth his parents.” “The *ruling* principle of

the heart, is selfishness." "A mind never *yielding* to circumstances, must be powerful."

4. By a relative pronoun and the clause connected with it; as, "The man *who is industrious*, seldom comes to want."

5. By the definite and indefinite articles; as, "*The* sun is bright." "*A halo* of glory was around him." The definition of the articles show that they modify the words to which they belong.

§ 209. The *grammatical subject* is modified *directly* or *indirectly*; *directly*, when the modifying terms explain, limit or describe the subject; as, "*A very diligent* student seldom fails of success." Here *very* modifies directly *diligent*, and indirectly *student*.

REM. 1. Several clauses sometimes modify the same subject either directly or indirectly.

REM. 2. A noun or pronoun in the possessive case as specified above.

REM. 3. An adjective modifying a noun may itself be modified as follows.

1. By an adverb; as, "*Very* much depends on the impressions of childhood."

2. By a noun in the objective case; as, "Many are fond of *applause*."

3. By a verb in the infinitive mode; as, "A man of integrity is worthy *to be trusted*."

REM. 4. A participle modifying a subject may be modified:

1. By a noun in the objective case; as, "Washington having freed his *country* from oppression, resigned his commission."

2. By an infinitive; as, "A man *laboring* to withstand the enticements of pleasure, will share in the sympathy of the benevolent."

3. By an adverb; as, "Watching *diligently* the hour of arrival, he waits with painful anxiety for his expected friend."

REM. 5. An adverb may be modified:

1. By another adverb; as, "He acts *more* openly."

2. By a noun; as, "Many do not act agreeably to their *professions*."

REM. 6. The nominative case independent, denoting the person addressed, and designed to arouse his attention, does not appear to form a part either of the subject or predicate of the proposition with which it stands connected, but a separate part

of the sentence, which may be called the *compellative*; as, “*My lords, this measure will greatly benefit the nation.*” The *compellative* often limits a pronoun in the subject or predicate; as, “*Come thou to me, my son.*” “*I love thee, O my country.*”

PREDICATE.

§ 209. The predicate like the subject, is either *grammatical* or *logical*.

§ 210. The *grammatical* predicate consists of a verb alone; as, “*Years fly away.*”

§ 211. The *logical* predicate consists of the *grammatical* predicate with its various modifying terms; as, “*Johnson was the author of an English Lexicon.*”

REMARK. If the *grammatical* predicate has no modifying terms, it is the same as the *logical* predicate.

§ 212. The predicate, also, like the subject, is either simple or compound.

§ 213. A simple predicate consists of one finite verb; as, “*All men must die.*” “*The ocean rolls.*”

§ 214. A compound predicate consists of two or more simple predicates belonging to the same subject or subjects; as, “*Sin vitiates and debases the soul.*” “*Virtue exalts and ennobles the mind.*”

PREDICATE MODIFIED.

§ 215. A *grammatical* predicate is modified as follows.

1. By a noun or pronoun in the objective case; as, “*A prudent man foreseeth the evil and hideth himself.*”

2. By a verb in the infinitive mode; as, “*He desires to learn.*”

3. By an adjective which agrees with the subject; as, “*Life is short.*” Here *short*, coming after the verb, gives the proposition a different meaning from what would be expressed by it in the following arrangement; “*Short life is.*” The adjective *short* modifies both the verb and the noun. So in the proposition, “*The earth is round,*” place the adjective *round* before the subject *earth*, and the proposition becomes a new one. In the

proposition "the *round* earth is," simply the 'existence of the round earth is affirmed; but in the proposition, "The earth is *round*," the figure of the earth is specifically affirmed.

4. By a noun in apposition with the subject when it follows an active intransitive, neuter or passive verb; as, "Victoria *walks* queen of England." Here *queen* qualifies *walks*, by expressing in what capacity she walks. The propositions, "Victoria *walks* queen of England," and, "Victoria the queen of England *walks*," are very different. "God is the *author* of all things." This proposition affirms that all things were created by God. But the proposition, "God the *author* of all things is," affirms particularly the existence of God, the author of all things. Similar remarks are applicable to the proposition, "The child was called *John*."

5. By adverbs; as, "Newton pursued his investigations *patiently*." "Death often comes *suddenly*."

REMARK. The terms that modify the predicate may also be modified according to the rules given for the modification of the subject.

GRAMMATICAL AND LOGICAL CONNECTION.

§ 217. Words and propositions are connected either *grammatically* or *logically*.

§ 218. *Grammatical connection* is that which is expressed by conjunctions between verbs, nouns, pronouns, adjectives and adverbs, which are in the same construction.

§ 219. The *logical connection* is that which exists between the ideas denoted by two or more propositions, the terms of which may be wholly or partially expressed.

REMARK. The logical connection refers not only to that which exists between propositions of like regimen, but to all that are expressed by connective particles whether the construction of propositions be like or unlike.

§ 220. The grammatical connection may be illustrated as follows:

1. By the connection of two or more verbs of like modes and tenses, having but one subject; as, "Vice vitiates *and* debases the mind." This is the *grammatical* connection. The follow-

ing is the *logical* connection: *Vice vitiates the mind*, and *vice debases the mind*.

2. By two or more nouns which are the subjects of one verb; as, "*Anxiety and care weary the mind*." *And* here connects, grammatically, *care* and *anxiety*; but logically, the two propositions, *care wearies the mind*, and *anxiety wearies the mind*.

3. By two or more nouns or pronouns which are the objects of an active-transitive verb; as, "*I saw James and John studying*." Here *and* connects *James* and *John* grammatically; but logically, the two propositions, *I saw James studying*, and *I saw John studying*.

4. By two or more adjectives belonging to the same noun; as, "*Howard was a generous and philanthropic man*." Here *and* connects *generous* and *philanthropic* grammatically; but logically, the two propositions, *Howard was a generous man*, and *Howard was a philanthropic man*.

5. By two or more adverbs qualifying the same verb; as, "*The trial was conducted nobly and justly*." Here *and* connects, grammatically, *nobly* and *justly*; but logically, the two propositions, *the trial was conducted nobly*, and *the trial was conducted justly*.

REMARK. The logical connection requires the whole proposition to be repeated as many times as there are verbs, nouns, adjectives or adverbs of like construction in the same sentence.

SENTENCES.

§ 221. "A sentence consists of one proposition, or two or more united."

§ 222. A simple sentence consists of only one proposition; as, "*John spells*."

§ 223. A compound sentence consists of two or more propositions; as, "*James studies, and Edward labors*."

§ 224. "The propositions of which a compound sentence consists, are called *clauses* or *members*."

§ 225. "The members of a compound sentence are either dependent or independent."

§ 226. A clause is *independent* when it makes complete sense by itself; *dependent* when its sense is complete only in connection with another clause; as, "*Vir-*

tue will triumph, though she sometimes yields to vice.” Here the *former* clause is independent ; the *latter* dependent.

§ 227. “That member of a compound sentence on which the other members depend, is the leading clause ; its subject, the leading subject ; and its verb, the leading verb.”

§ 228. The leading verb is either in the *indicative* or *imperative* mode.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSING.

1. “The poor mariner contemplated the horrors of his situation with a look of absolute despair.”

This is a simple and independent sentence. The logical subject is, *The poor mariner*. The logical predicate is, *contemplated the horrors of his situation with a look of absolute despair*. The grammatical subject is *mariner*.¹ This is modified by *the*² and *poor*.³ The grammatical predicate is *contemplated*.⁴ This is modified by *horrors* and by *with* and *look*. *Horrors* is modified by *the* and by *of situation*.⁵ *Look* is modified by *a* and by *of despair*. *Situation* is modified by *his* ; and *despair* by *absolute*.

2. “Sylla having departed to combat the public enemy, *Marius reëntered Italy* ; where, forming an army of many thousands of discontented and factious persons, he placed himself at their head and marched directly for Rome.”—*Greene's Hist. Italy*.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of three clauses, into which it may be resolved thus :

(1) *Marius reëntered Italy*, which is the leading clause.

(2) *Sylla having departed to combat the public enemy*.

(3) Where, forming an army of many thousands of discontented and factious persons, he *placed himself at their head and marched directly for Rome*.

In the preceding clauses, the logical predicates have been italicised.

In the 1st clause, *Marius* is both the grammatical and logical subject. The grammatical predicate is *reëntered*, which is modified by *Italy*.⁶

The 2nd clause contains a nominative case absolute. It is

¹ § 202.

² § 208, 5.

³ § 208, 3.

⁴ § 210.

⁵ § 215, R. and 208, 2.

⁶ § 215, 1.

attached¹ to the leading clause² without any connective, and in order to denote the time *when* Marius reëntered Italy. Though it does not express a direct affirmation, it is properly a distinct clause of itself, and is equivalent to the clause *when Sylla had departed to combat the public enemy*. *Sylla* is the grammatical subject. *Having departed* is the grammatical predicate, and is modified by *to combat*,³ which is modified by *enemy*. *Enemy* is modified by *the* and *public*.

The 3rd clause is connected to the leading clause by the connective adverb *where*,⁴ which relates to *Italy*, and modifies *forming*, *placed* and *marched*, by denoting the place in which these several actions were performed. The grammatical subject is *he*, i. e. Marius, which is modified by *forming*, and this by *army*; the latter by *an* and *of thousands*, and *thousands* by *many* and *of persons*; and this, again, by *discontented* and *factious*, which are connected by *and*. *Placed* and *marched* are the grammatical predicate, which is compound.⁵ *Placed* is modified by *himself* and *at head*; *head* by *their*. *Marched* is modified by *directly*⁶ and *for Rome*; and connects *placed* and *marched*.

QUESTIONS—First Course.

What does syntax teach? Upon what does the construction of a sentence depend? What is meant by “the relation of words”? What is meant by the *position* of a word? What is understood by *agreement* of words? What is meant by the term *government* in grammar? What is a *proposition*? Define the *subject* of a proposition. *Predicate*. How is the *subject* divided? What is a *grammatical subject*? *Logical*? What further division of the subject is made? What is a *simple subject*? *Compound*? How is the grammatical subject modified? Mention the five ways in which a grammatical subject is modified? How else is the grammatical subject modified? How is the *predicate* divided? What is the grammatical predicate? The logical? What other division of the predicate is made? What is a *simple predicate*? A *compound*? How is the grammatical predicate modified? Mention the five methods. How are words connected? What is grammatical connection? Logical connection? Repeat the six different ways in which the grammatical connection may be illustrated? What is a sentence? What is a simple sentence? A compound sentence?

¹ § 227. ² § 226. ³ § 208, R. 4, 2. ⁴ § 177. ⁵ § 214. ⁶ § 215, 5.

What are the propositions called which make up a compound sentence? How are the *members* divided? When is a clause *independent*? When *dependent*? What is the *leading clause*? In what mode is the leading verb?

QUESTIONS—Second Course.

To what does the term *grammatical* refer? To what does the *logical* subject refer? Is a verb in the infinitive mode sometimes used as a grammatical or logical subject? Is a whole sentence ever used thus? When the infinitive is the subject of a proposition, which is the grammatical, and which the logical part? When a sentence is the subject, which is the grammatical, and which the logical part? May several clauses modify the same subject? Mention the three ways in which an adjective, modifying a noun, may itself be modified? Mention the three methods in which a participle, modifying a subject, may be modified? How may an adverb be modified? Can the grammatical predicate be modified? How may the terms that modify the predicate, be modified? To what does the logical connection refer? How many times does a logical connection require a sentence to be repeated?

RULES OF SYNTAX.

RULE I.

§ 229. The *definite article* belongs to nouns of the singular or plural number; as, "*The* bird sings." "*The* birds sing."

REM. 1. When the definite article is prefixed to an adjective without a noun expressed, the adjective sometimes acquires the meaning of a noun, and should be parsed as such; as, "The very frame of spirit proper for being diverted with *the laughable* in objects, is so different from that which is necessary for philosophizing on them."—*Camp. Rhet.*

REM. 2. In many cases, when the article comes before an adjective without a noun expressed, it belongs to some noun implied; as, "The animal (world,) and vegetable world." "The man of firm purpose and decision of character turns neither to the right (hand) nor left (hand) in the career of duty." "He was a good (man) and a just man."

REM. 3. The definite article is sometimes prefixed to adject-

tives or adverbs of the comparative or superlative degree, to make the expression more intensive; as, "The farther they proceeded, *the* greater appeared their alacrity."—*Dr. Johnson*. "James walked *the* fastest of the whole company."

REM. 4. The article *the* sometimes supplies the place of a possessive pronoun; as, "Men who have not bowed *the* (*their*) knee to Baal."—*Bible*. "He looks him full in *the* face;" i. e. *his* face.

REM. 5. The article should not be prefixed to proper nouns, unless they are plural and denote a collection of individuals; as, "*The United States*;" or to nouns of virtue, vice, passion, art or science, nor before nouns whose meaning is sufficiently known without them.

REM. 6. When an adjective is put after the noun on account of any clause depending upon it, the same article is repeated; as, "They are not the men in the nation *the* most difficult to be replaced."

REM. 7. "When an *adjective* immediately precedes a noun, the article is prefixed to the adjective, that its power may extend over that also;" as,

"*The* private path, *the* secret acts of men,
If noble, far the noblest of their lives."

The exceptions to this rule are such adjectives as, *all*, *many*, *both*, *such*, *what*, and such as *a* preceded by the adverbs, *too*, *as*, *so*, *how*, or the sensible properties of matter; as, *hard*, *soft*, etc.; as, "*All* the people ran to the former." "Like *many* an other poor wretch, I now suffer *all the* ill consequences of *so foolish an* indulgence."

REM. 8. If the adjective comes after the noun, the article usually precedes the noun; as, "*A* man improvident of the future." "*Julian* the apostate."

REM. 9. When nouns are closely connected in construction, the article is generally prefixed to only one of them; as, "*The* waves and winds were terrific."

REM. 10. When nouns are not closely connected in construction, the article should be repeated before each noun; as, "The keen discerner of character, does not base his opinion upon *the* act of a moment, but *the* general tenor of a man's conduct." It would be improper to omit the article before the word *general*.

REM. 11. When it is desirable to express a number of nouns in succession with uncommon emphasis, the article is placed

before each of them; as, "I cannot specify *the* day, *the* hour and *the* minute when my friend arrived."

REM. 12. *The* is sometimes prefixed to the relative *which* in the sacred Scriptures, to render it more emphatic; as, "In *the which* ye also walked sometime, when ye lived in them." Coll. 3: 7.

REM. 13. If adjectives that are connected describe things individually different, but expressed by the same term, the article should be repeated before all of them, because the repetition of the article implies the repetition of the noun; as, "*The* white and *the* black sheep."

REM. 14. If the adjectives that are connected, describe the same thing or things, the article should not be repeated, because where the article is not repeated, the adjectives belong to the same nouns; as, "*The* high and mighty states." Here the word *high* and *mighty* belong to *states*:—(The above two remarks are equally applicable to the *indefinite articles*.)

REM. 15. *The* is often prefixed to the indefinite pronouns *one* and *other*, and their plurals; as, "He would take neither *the* one nor *the* other." "See *the* great ones of the earth." "I am not aware what *the* others did at that time."

REM. 16. When persons are addressed, the article is generally omitted before their titles; as, "Master, will you explain to me this problem?"

REM. 17. Sometimes participial nouns take the definite article before them; as, "In *the* doing of right, there is great reward." The participial noun occurs very often, however, without the article. Articles should never be prefixed to pure participles.

POSITION.

REM. 18. The definite article precedes the noun.

False Syntax—First Course.

Fire, air, earth and water are four elements of philosophers. Reason why I did this, is evident. We have within us, an intelligent principle, distinct from body and from matter. Beware of drunkenness; it impairs understanding, wastes estate, destroys reputation, consumes a body, and renders the man of brightest parts a common pest of a meanest clown.

False Syntax—Second Course.

God will reward the righteous men, but he will punish the

wicked men. The weather was hot and cold weather alternately. He was strongest in power. He looks him directly in his eye. The vice and the immorality are concomitant. He, of all the company, was most difficult to curb. Great skill displayed, and calm presence of mind during the contest, elicited just praise of his commander. The Franklin, philosopher. The violet, the indigo, the blue, the green, the yellow, the orange, the red, are seven colors of rainbow. There are some evils of life, which equally affect prince and people. Time, place and occasion were specified particularly. In which I will appear unto thee. Hadt, maimed, lame and blind came to him to be healed. The great and the good and the wise men of every nation suffered. He assisted one, but spurned the other. The Mr. Langdon, will you lend me a dollar? Conflagration followed taking of the city. The wisest men, and the best men sometimes commit error. It matters but little whether you take this course or that course of action. Lady, unconscious of her powers, sang sweetly. Excellent traits of his character were fully appreciated. I think this is best course you could take. He is stronger of the two, but not wiser. The anger and the hatred should be avoided. He was wounded in his foot. The Supreme Being is wisest, most powerful and best of beings. The lightnings and the thunder, and the roar of the ocean and the flapping of the sails, and the screams of the women, were enough to appal the strongest heart. In slaughtering of women and children the savages seemed to take the greatest delight. He continued walking up the avenue, and down the avenue. Can you describe to me, origin, purpose, object, progress and result of that enterprise? Young, old, gay, sad, infirm and strong came to see him. He followed the wise and the judicious advice of his friend. The Miss Goodwin, will you accept this sandwich?

RULE II.

§ 230. The indefinite article belongs to nouns of the singular number only; as, *a* hill; *a* house; *an* hour; *an* apple.

REM. 1. The indefinite article sometimes supplies the place of *each* or *every*; as, "Pears cost twelve cents *a* dozen;" that is, *every* dozen, or *each* dozen.

REM. 2. If in making a comparison, the nouns compared denote the same person or thing, the indefinite article should not

be inserted before the latter ; but if they denote a different person or thing, the indefinite article should be prefixed to both nouns ; as, "He would make a better *soldier* than *scholar*." Here, both nouns denote the same person. Insert the indefinite article before the latter noun, and the meaning is very much changed ; as, "He would make a better *soldier* than a *scholar*." Here a comparison is made between the words *soldier* and *scholar* which denote different persons. The proposition denotes that *he* the subject, has qualities that fit him better for a soldier, than a *man* of science has.

REM. 3. Sometimes the insertion of the indefinite article gives a positive meaning to a proposition, and the omission of it, a negative meaning ; as, "James had *a* little respect for his associates." Here a positive meaning is asserted. "James had little respect for his associates." Here is a negative meaning expressed.

REM. 4. The indefinite article *a* is used before plural nouns preceded by *few* or *many* ; as, "*a few* days ;" "*a great many* persons."—*Dr. Webster*.

REM. 5. *A* is used before some collective words, when they belong to plural nouns ; as, "*a* thousand dollars ;" "*a* hundred years." Here, as in the preceding remark, the article modifies the sense of the adjective.

REM. 6. When *many* is preceded by the article *a* the adjective *great* comes between them ; as, "*a great many* men."

REM. 7. The adjective *many* denoting plurality belongs to a singular noun when the article *a* comes between them ; as,

"Full *many* a gem of purest ray serene."

"Where *many* a rose-bud rears its blushing head."

REM. 8. "The following examples illustrate the peculiar delicacy there is in the insertion or omission of the indefinite article. 'I do not intend to turn *critic* on this occasion ;' not *a* critic. On the contrary, we properly insert the article in the following sentence ; 'I do not intend to become *a* critic in this business ;' not, to become *critic*. It is not incorrect to say with the article, 'He is in *a* great hurry ;' but not, 'in great hurry.' And yet in this expression, 'He is in great haste,' the article should be omitted ; it would be improper to say, 'He is in *a* great haste.' A nice discernment, and accurate attention to the best usage, are necessary to direct us on these occasions."—*Murray*.

REM. 9. The article *a* is prefixed to participial and other

nouns, and expresses the relation of the prepositions *about, at, in, on, of, to*; as, "He is *a* going soon." "He went *a* fishing."

POSITION.

REM. 10. The indefinite article *a* or *an* always precedes the noun to which it belongs.

False Syntax—First Course.

A five hundred horses composed his cavalry. An eagles were seen yesterday. An apples are ripe. A farmers were ploughing. A five days of fair weather brought them into harbor.

False Syntax—Second Course.

You would make a better merchant than a farmer. He is no better than rascal. Few days' reprieve we grant to him through the clemency of the governor. Great many individuals were crushed to death. He gave thousand dollars for the house. That state will not exist hundred years hence. Million of people rose up in arms. A many man came to see him. A many boy looked on with delight. He is in great hurry. What hurry he was in! He went in a great haste.

QUESTIONS ON THE ARTICLES.

First Course.

What is rule first? Repeat rule second.

Second Course.

When does an adjective acquire the meaning of a noun? Give instances where articles, coming before adjectives, belong to nouns implied. Why is the definite article sometimes prefixed to adjectives or adverbs in the comparative and superlative degree? Does the article *the* ever supply the place of a possessive pronoun? Before what nouns should the article *the* not be prefixed? When is the same article repeated? When an adjective precedes a noun, why is the article prefixed to it? If the adjective comes after the noun, where is the article? Where nouns are closely allied in construction, is the article prefixed to each? When they are not closely connected,

should the article be prefixed to each? Under what circumstances may the article be repeated before a number of nouns in succession? Why is *the* sometimes prefixed to the relative *which*? Why should the article be prefixed to adjectives that are connected, describing things individually different, but expressed by the same common term? If the adjectives describe the same thing, why should not the adjective be repeated? Give instances where *the* is prefixed to the indefinite pronouns *one* and *other*. Are articles ever prefixed to participial nouns? When persons are addressed, is the article prefixed to their titles? What is the *position* of the definite article? What part of speech sometimes supplies the place of *each* or *every*? Give the substance of Rem. 2, § 230. Does the insertion of the indefinite article ever give a positive meaning to a proposition? State an instance where the omission of it gives a negative meaning. Before plural nouns, preceded by *few* or *many*, what article is used? What article is used before some collective words? When *many* is preceded by the article *a*, what word comes between them? Give instances illustrating the peculiar delicacy of the insertion or omission of the article *a*. What prepositions is the article *a* prefixed to participial nouns to express the relation of? What is the position of the indefinite article *a* or *an*?

RULE III.

§ 231. A noun or pronoun which is the subject of a verb, must be in the *nominative case*; as, "Then said *Agrippa* unto Paul, almost *thou* persuadest me to be a Christian." Acts 16: 28.

REM. 1. Every subject-nominative except the case absolute, and when the noun or pronoun represents a person or thing addressed, belongs to some verb expressed or implied.

REM. 2. "In poetry the subject-nominative is often omitted in interrogative sentences, in such cases where in prose the omission would be improper;" as,

"Lives there who loves pain?"—*Milton*.

That is, "Lives there *a man* who loves pain?"

REM. 3. The subject-nominative is often omitted after the conjunctions *than*, *as* and *but*; as, "He felt himself addicted to philosophical speculations, with more ardor than *consisted* with the duties of a Roman senator."—*Murphy's Tacitus*. Here the

ellipsis should be supplied by *that which*. "Not that anything in consequence of our late loss, more afflictive than *was* to be expected."—*Life of Cowper*. Here *that which* supplies the ellipsis after *than*.

REM. 4. In the answer to a question, the whole sentence is usually understood, except the noun which is the principal subject of the interrogation; as, "Who discovered the law of gravitation? *Newton*."

REM. 5. The personal pronoun *me* is sometimes the subject of a verb, and the verb has the form of the third person singular; as, *methinks, methought*.

REM. 6. The nominative is sometimes introduced without the verb, when the train of thought is suddenly interrupted; as, "The *name* of a procession, what a great mixture of ideas, persons, habits, tapers, motions, sounds does it contain!"—*Locke*.

POSITION.

REM. 7. The *position* of the subject-nominative may be generally ascertained by the following rules.

1. In declaratory propositions, the nominative precedes the verb; as, "In the beginning *God created* the heavens and the earth." Gen. 1: 1. "And *ye will not come* to me that *ye might have life*." John 5: 40. "*Peace dawned* upon his mind."—*Johnson*. "The moral law *is* a rule of right."

2. The nominative may be separated from the verb by one or more words or one or more propositions; as, "The *ways of wisdom are pleasant*." "*Liberty*, say the fanatics, favorers of popular power, *can only be found* in a democracy."—*Anach. ch. 62*.

REM. 8. The subject-nominative in the following cases, is placed after the verb, or the first auxiliaries:

1. When the verb is in the imperative mode; as, "Depart *thou*."

2. When a supposition is made without the conditional conjunction; as, "Did *he* but know my anxiety." Had *I* but known their plans."

3. When the pronouns *whose, his, hers, mine, their, your*, etc. are placed before the verb with the governing word; as, "From whose labors has resulted no important *benefit*."

4. When a strong desire or feeling is expressed; as, Oh! may *I* not share in your smiles!" "What can *I* do?"

REM. 5. When a question is asked, which does not begin

with an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case; as, "Why will *ye* die?" "Is *he* able to accomplish it?"

6. Often when a neuter verb is used; as, "On a sudden appeared the *king*."

7. When an emphatical adjective introduces a sentence; as, "Happy is the man whose heart does not reproach him."

8. When a sentence depends on *neither* or *nor*, so as to be coupled with another sentence; as, "Ye shall not eat of it, neither shall *ye* touch it, lest ye die."

9. Generally, when the verb is preceded by *here*, *there*, *hence*, *thence*, *then*, *thus*, *neither*, *nor*, *such*, *so*, *yet*, *the-same*, *herein*, *therein*, and *wherein*.

"There is a *stream* whose gentle flow
Supplies the city of our God."

"So panteth my *soul* after thee, oh Lord!" Ps. xlii. "Neither has this *man* sinned." "Herein is my *Father* glorified, that ye bear much fruit." John 15: 8. "Make me to go in the path of thy commandments; for therein do *I* delight." Ps. 119: 35.

10. When a dialogue is introduced by the verbs *say*, *answer*, or *reply*, *think*, and the like; as, "I shall not go to the city, said he."

False Syntax.

Him that pursues the path of virtue, will be safe. Whom shall be found a faithful friend? Thou whom we love dearly, will be long in our memory. Whom are less than the least of all saints. Us who have toiled in seed-time, shall reap a rich harvest. Whom dost thou suppose was present? I can parse as well as them. James and we are going to town. Whom tore that book? *Me*.

RULE IV.

§ 232. A noun or pronoun joined with a participle and governing no verb, is put in the *nominative case absolute* to denote the time, cause or concomitant of an action, or the state or condition on which it depends; as, "Jesus had conveyed himself away, a *multitude being* in that place." John 5: 13. "*Tarquinius reigning*, Pythagoras came into Italy."—*Cicero*. Here the nominative absolute denotes *time*. "*Hunger inciting*,

the wolves seek the fold.”—*Ovid*. Here *cause* is denoted. “*He failing*, who shall meet success?”

REM. 1. The nominative case absolute is an abridged form of expression, and may be resolved in a proposition, by making the noun or pronoun the subject, and the participle the predicate; as, *When Tarquinius was reigning* Pythagoras came into Italy. *Because of pressing hunger* the wolf seeks the fold. *If he fails*, who will meet with success? Thus the examples under the above rule are resolved.

REM. 2. When the nominative absolute is thus resolved into a proposition, the proposition is usually commenced with *when*, *because*, *if*, *since*; as, *I being a youth*; *when I was a youth*.

REM. 3. A noun may be put in the nominative absolute with either the present, perfect or compound perfect participles; as, “*Pride prevailing*, man becomes a slave to fancy.” “*This said*, he formed thee—Adam.” “*An extra session of Congress having been called*, each member repaired to the Capitol.

REM. 4. Sometimes an indefinite noun or pronoun is understood before a participle with which it is put in the nominative case absolute; as, “It is not possible to act otherwise, *considering* the weakness of our nature.” Here *considering* agrees with some noun or pronoun according to the sense; as, “*I, thou, he, she, we, you, they, person or persons* considering,” etc. “*Generally speaking*, his manners are agreeable.”

REM. 5. The participle *being* is often implied after nouns or pronouns in the nominative case absolute; as,

“Alike in ignorance, his reason (*being*) such,
Whether he thinks too little, or too much.”—*Pope*.

False Syntax.

Me delighting in the pleasures of youth, no cares or anxieties disturb me. Thee being absent. The prosecution of your business was suspended. Him having dismissed his audience, returned home fatigued by his efforts. Them having fulfilled their contract, the lord can have no claim upon them.

But him, the chieftain of them all,
His sword hangs rusting on the wall.

Her quiet relapsing to her former state,
With boding fears, approach the serving train.

These all thy gifts and graces we display,
Thee, only thee, directing all the way.

RULE V.

§ 233. When an *address* is made, the person or thing addressed is put in the nominative case absolute; as, "O! virtue, how amiable thou art!" "O! beautiful boy!" "O lovely land of my birth!"

REM. 1. Nouns or pronouns addressed are always either in the second person, singular or plural. A noun is always in the third person when preceded by an article.

REM. 2. Nouns are sometimes expressed in exclamations, and in short phrases, to exhibit more force and vivacity. In such cases, however, they depend on some word or words understood, and are not put in the case absolute; as,

"To arms! They come! The *Greek!* The *Greek!*"—*Halleck*.

Here *Greek* is the subject of the verb *comes* understood.

"Alas! the *lofty city!* and alas!

The trebly hundred *triumphs!* and the *day*

When Brutus made the dagger's edge surpass

The conqueror's sword in bearing fame away!"

Childe Harold, Canto 4, Stanza 82.

False Syntax.

Oh happy us! surrounded thus with blessings! Thee, too! Brutus, my son! cried Caesar, overcome. Oh thrice thee, having escaped from the hand of thy pursuers!

RULE VI.

§ 234. A noun or pronoun annexed to another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, is put by apposition in the same case; as, "Cicero, the *orator.*" "Milton, the *poet.*" "We, the *consuls.*" "I *myself*, cannot subscribe to your sentiments."

REM. 1. A noun in apposition with a preceding noun, is used to explain or describe it.

REM. 2. The pronouns of the *first*, and *second* persons are sometimes prefixed to nouns, to designate their person; as, "I John saw these things."—*Bible*.

"Blow ye wild winds of winter, blow!"

"Ye hypocrites, ye generation of vipers." "His praise, ye brooks attune."—*Thompson*. In such constructions the noun is usually parsed as in apposition with the pronoun.

REM. 3. A noun is sometimes put in apposition with a sentence ; as, " Let him reflect that an orator is training—a difficult *thing*." *Quinct.* " He has always counseled me as a father—a *kindness* which I cannot easily forget.

REM. 4. The explanatory term sometimes differs from the principal term, i. e. the noun explained, in gender ; as, " They have forgotten me,—the fountain of living waters," etc. " The *Scipios*,—two thunderbolts in war."

REM. 5. Sometimes the explanatory term differs from the principal term in number, and occasionally in both number and person.

REM. 6. Sometimes the explanatory noun is connected to the other by a conjunction.

REM. 7. A noun or pronoun in apposition with two or more nouns is generally put in the plural ; as, " The productions of Demosthenes and Cicero, the most distinguished *orators* of antiquity, are read with lively interest by every classical scholar."

REM. 8. Sometimes the former noun or pronoun denotes a whole, and its parts are expressed by nouns or pronouns in apposition with it ; as, " The whole *company, gentlemen, ladies* and *servants*, were in the highest spirits.

" And to their boat (they) returning *each*
With thoughtful brows and haste,
And o'ercharged breasts too full for speech,
Left 'midst the frozen waste,
That charnel ship, which years before
Had sailed from distant Albion's shore.

QUESTIONS ON THE NOMINATIVE CASE OF NOUNS.

Questions—First Course.

Repeat rule 3rd. 4th. 5th. 6th.

Questions—Second Course.

Does every subject-nominative belong to some verb expressed or implied ? May the subject-nominative often be omitted in poetry, where the omission would be improper in prose ? Give an instance. Give an example where the subject-nominative is omitted after the comparative *than*. Is the pronoun *me* ever the subject of a verb ? When is the nominative introduced without the verb ? What two rules determine the *position* of the subject-nominative ? Repeat the ten cases where the subject-nominative may come *after* the verb. How

may the nominative case absolute be resolved? When the nominative absolute is thus resolved, how is the proposition usually commenced? With what participles may a noun be put in the case absolute? What is sometimes understood before the participles? Where is the participle *being* often implied? In what person are nouns or pronouns when addressed? For what purpose are nouns sometimes expressed in exclamation, and short phrases? On what do they then depend? and in what case are they put? What does a noun in apposition with another noun denote? What pronouns are sometimes prefixed to nouns to designate their person? Give instances where nouns are put in apposition with sentences? In what does the explanatory term sometimes differ from the principal term? Does it ever differ in *number* or *person*? Give instances. In what number is a noun that is in apposition with two or more nouns? Explain Rem. 7, § 234, with the examples.

RULE VII.

§ 235. Adjectives belong to nouns or pronouns which they describe, expressed or implied; as, “A *good* man.” “A *rich* field.”

REM. 1. This rule is applicable to definite, indefinite, distributive and participial adjectives.

REM. 2. An adjective is often used alone, the noun with which it agrees, being understood; as, “The *Honorable* (body), the Legislature dissolved.” “The pride of swains Palemon was, the generous (*man*) and the rich (*man*).” “The nine (*Muses*).” “Philip was one of the seven (deacons).”

REM. 3. When an adjective describes persons or things with sufficient clearness without a noun to which it strictly belongs, it may be construed as a noun; as, “Associate with the *wise* and the *good*.” “The *future* will resemble the *past*.” “Such is the opinion of the *learned*.” “The *just* shall live by faith.” “If the *righteous* scarcely be saved where shall the *ungodly* and *sinner* appear?” 1 Peter 4: 18. “Many are called but *few* chosen.”

REM. 4. Adjectives sometimes belong to a verb in the infinitive mode, or a participle used as a noun, and also to whole propositions or sentences; as, “*To err* is *human*.” “*To treat* with contempt the cries of the needy is *wicked*.” “*Agreeable* to this, *we read* of names being blotted out of God’s book.” “I was

not aware of his being *able* to do it." "Her majesty signified her pleasure to the admiral, that as soon as *we had left* a squadron for Dunkirk *agreeable* to what he had proposed, he should proceed with the fleet."

REM. 5. When the infinitive mode, to which the adjective belongs, has qualifying terms connected with it, the adjective should be construed as belonging grammatically to the verb only in the same manner as it would agree with a common noun having qualifying terms. Hence *wicked* in one of the above examples belongs, grammatically, to the verb *to treat*, although, logically, it belongs to the verb with its modifying terms *with contempt*.

REM. 6. When an adjective agrees with a proposition having qualifying terms, it belongs, grammatically, only to the simple proposition itself. In one of the examples above, *agreeable* belongs to *we read*, grammatically, but logically, to the proposition with its modifying terms.

REM. 7. When a comparison is made between two objects or two classes of objects, or one object and all the others of the same class, the comparative degree is used; as, "The pine tree is *taller* than the maple." "Because the foolishness of God is *wiser* than men, and the weakness of God is *stronger* than men," 1 Cor. 1: 25. "For the children of this world are in their generation *wiser* than the children of light." Luke 16: 8. "Thou, through thy commandments, hast made me *wiser* than my enemies," Psalms 119: 98.

REM. 8. In the use of the comparative degree, the latter term should never include the former, although this is sometimes done; as, "For he (Solomon) was *wiser* than all *men*," yet precision requires that *other* should be expressed before *men*; as, "For he (Solomon) was wiser than all *other* men."

REM. 9. When a comparison is made between one or more objects and all others of the same class or not, the superlative may be used; as, "God is the *greatest* of all beings." "An elephant is the *largest* of all animals."

REM. 10. When the superlative is used, the latter term should always include the former; as, "The evil of sin is the *greatest* of all evils." It would be improper to say "of all *other* evils."

REM. 11. "When several adjectives, each independently of the other qualify a noun," they are connected by a conjunction expressed or implied, whether they precede or follow it; as,

“He made an *eloquent, profound and instructive* speech.” “His manner was *elegant, attractive, forcible and impressive*.”

REM. 12. When two adjectives precede a noun, the latter of which forms with it a complex idea, they are not connected by a conjunction, but the former belongs to the latter adjective and the noun forming a complex idea. But if more than two adjectives precede a noun of the above construction, all may be connected by conjunctions expressed or implied except the last two; as, “He was a *manly, intelligent and discreet* young man.”

REM. 13. Adjectives are sometimes used adverbially; as,

“Drink *deep* (*deeply*) or taste not the Pierian spring.”—*Pope*.

“He opened *wide* (*widely*) her everlasting gates.”—*Milton*.

“Let us write *slow* (*slowly*) and *exact* (*exactly*).”

REM. 14. In poetry, this method of using the adjective may sometimes be an excellence, but in prose it is not generally allowable.

REM. 15. When an adjective placed after the verb in the predicate, belongs to the subject of the proposition, it not only describes the subject, but qualifies the verb that immediately precedes it; as, “The earth is *round*.” “The sun is the *largest* of the heavenly bodies.” See § 215. 3.

REM. 16. The terms used to distinguish persons should be parsed as adjectives; as, “*Sir Isaac Newton*.” “*Sir John Moore*.” “*Doctor Benjamin Rush*.” These terms may be called *proper* adjectives.

REM. 17. When an adjective comes after the verb and forms a part of the predicate of a proposition, it modifies both the verb and the subject; as, “The earth is *round*.” See § 215.

REM. 18. When one adjective is annexed to another not to express an additional idea, but the idea of the first more forcibly, the conjunction is usually omitted.

False Syntax.

Washington was a greater general than all. He was more philosophical than all men. Intemperance and slavery are the two greatest calamities of all other evils in our country. The lion is the most savage of all other animals. His person was tall, and well proportioned, and elegant, and capable of great endurance.

RULE VIII.

§ 236. Definite and numeral adjectives denoting

unity or plurality, agree with the nouns which they describe, in number; as, "*This* man;" "*these* men."
 " *That* tree; "*those* trees."

REMARK. Sometimes a numeral adjective denoting plurality, belongs to a noun in the singular; as, "*Twenty* head of cattle."
 "A *hundred* penny-worth of bread." "*Twenty* sail of the line."

§ 237. POSITION.

REM. 1. The following rules may assist the learner to ascertain the proper position of adjectives.

1. Adjectives are generally placed before nouns; as, "A *noble* man."

REM. 2. In the following cases the adjective is put after the noun or pronoun to which it belongs.

1. When adjectives belong to pronouns; as, "Will you leave me *hopeless*."

2. When an adjective becomes a title, or is applied to a noun; as, "Alexander the *Great*." "George the *Fourth*."

3. When one or more words depend upon the adjectives; as, "A man *generous* to his enemies." "A youth *susceptible* of improvement."

4. "When the quality results from the action of the verb;" as, "Vice makes life *miserable*."

5. When a verb occurs between the adjective and noun; as, "War is *expensive*."

6. When several adjectives belong to a noun, they may either precede or follow it; as, "A *learned, wise and martial* prince;" or, "A prince *learned, wise and martial*."

7. When the adjective is preceded by an adverb; as, "The boy is regularly *studious*."

8. For the sake of beauty and force, the adjective is used to introduce a sentence, and the noun is placed after the verb; as, "*Great* is the Lord." "*Happy* is the land that enjoys the smiles of Heaven."

9. When an adjective is taken abstractly, it may follow a neuter verb, in the infinitive mode, or a neuter participle or participial noun; as, "To be *dutiful*, is always becoming in children." "I was not aware of his being *able* to accomplish so much."

False Syntax.

These man came to me saying that that people were com-

ing. Who cut these tree? I gave ten cents for this apples. I saw forty heads of deer crossing the lake on the ice. He drew twenty pailfulls of water. Forty sails came in sight. He gave him six penniesworth of sugar. There were five hundred heads of buffalo in the drove.

QUESTIONS ON THE ADJECTIVES.

First Course.

What is rule 7th? Rule 8th?

Second Course.

To what adjectives is the seventh rule applicable? Is the adjective ever used alone? Give the substance of Rem. 3, § 235. Do adjectives ever belong to verbs in the infinitive mode, participles used as nouns or to whole propositions? Give instances. When the infinitive mode has qualifying terms connected with it, how is the adjective to be construed? When a proposition has qualifying terms, to what part of it does the adjective belong? Explain Rem. 7, § 235. In the use of the comparative degree, should the latter term ever include the former? When should the latter term always include the former? Give another instance when the superlative may be used. When several adjectives qualify a noun, are they connected by conjunctions? Explain Rem. 12, § 235. Are adjectives ever used adverbially? Is this method of using the adjective allowable in prose? When an adjective is placed after the verb, what does it describe and qualify? Terms used to distinguish persons, should be parsed as what? May a numeral adjective denoting plurality belong to a noun in the singular? What is the general rule for the position of the adjective? Mention the nine cases where an adjective may come after the verb.

RULE IX.

§ 238. Relative and personal pronouns agree with their antecedents in *gender*, *person* and *number*; but their *case* depends on the construction of the clause to which they belong; as, "The master *who* taught us." "The horse *which* runs." "The trees *which* grow." "For I am the least of the apostles, *that* am not meet to be called an apostle, because I persecuted the church of God."

REM. 1. Compound relative pronouns contain both the antecedent *that* and the relative *which*. The antecedent is parsed as a noun, and the relative as referring to it; as, "You do not understand *what* I mean;" i. e. *that which* I mean. Here *that* is the antecedent and *which* is the relative. "*Who* lives to virtue rarely can be rich;" i. e. *he who* lives to virtue, etc. "*Whoever* imagines that earthly pleasure is not alloyed with pain, will be disappointed;" i. e. *any one who* imagines, etc.

REM. 2. The neuter pronoun *it* is sometimes applied to a child, and to other creatures naturally masculine or feminine, if their sex is not known; as, "See that child; how beautiful *it* is!"

REM. 3. The pronoun *it* is sometimes used without a definite antecedent; as, "How fares *it* with you?" "Whether she grapples *it* with the pride of philosophy." This use of *it* may be allowable in colloquial style, but not in any other.

REM. 4. *It* sometimes is the subject of a proposition, and the noun to which it refers is placed after the verb in the predicate. The noun may be of either gender, number or person; as, "*It* is a *testimony* as glorious to his memory, as it is singular," etc. "But it is not this real essence that distinguishes them into species, but *it* is *men* who arrange them into sorts," etc. "Be of good cheer, *it* is *I*." Sometimes *it* is a substitute for a preceding or succeeding sentence or proposition; as, "But with me *it* is a small thing *that* I should be judged of you." 1 Cor. 4: 3.

REM. 5. Pronouns often refer to a sentential noun as its antecedent, and in this case it is always of the third person neuter gender; as, "*John* had the impression *that* he possessed extraordinary native talents, and *it* proved very injurious to him." "*Newton* pursued his investigations patiently, *which* was one great cause of his success."

REM. 6. The relative is sometimes omitted in the objective case; as, "I have not received the book (*which*) you promised me." "The pleasures (*which*) we enjoy here, are not enduring."

REM. 7. When an inanimate object is *personified*, the pronoun referring to it, agrees with it in its figurative sense; as,

"Earth felt the wound, and *nature* from *her* seat,
Sighing through all *her* works, gave signs of woe
That all was lost."

"Must I thus leave *thee*, *paradise*? thus leave
Thee, *native soil*, these happy walks and shades,
Fit haunt of Gods!"—*Milton's Paradise Lost*.

REM. 8. "When the antecedent is applied *metaphorically*, the pronoun agrees with it in its *literal* and not in its *figurative* sense;" as, "Pitt was the *pillar which* upheld the state." "The monarch of mountains rears *his* snowy head."

REM. 9. "When the antecedent is put, by *metonymy*, for a noun of different properties, the pronoun sometimes agrees with it in its figurative and sometimes in its literal sense;" as,

"The wolf who (*that*) from the nightly fold,
Fierce drags the bleating *prey*, ne'er drunk *her* milk,
Nor wore *her* warming fleece."—*Thompson*.

"That each may fill the circle marked by *Heaven*,
Who sees with equal eyes, as God of all,
A hero perish or a sparrow fall."—*Pope*.

"And Heaven beholds *its* image in its breast."

REM. 10. "When the antecedent is put, by *synechdoche*, for more or less than its literal signification, the pronoun agrees with it in the figurative and not in the literal sense;"—*Brown*.
as,

"But to the generous but still improving *mind*
That gives the hopeless heart to sing for joy,
To *him* the long review of ordered life
Is inward rapture only to be felt."

REM. 11. A noun in the singular number, preceded by the adjective *many*, is sometimes represented by a plural pronoun; as, "Many a *one who* came to hear him, went home highly pleased."

REM. 12. *Who* is applied only to persons or personified animals; *which* to brutes and inanimate things; *that* may be applied to both persons, brutes, or things inanimate; as, "Andre, *who* was hung as a spy." "The goods *which* I purchased." "The men *that* were lost."

REM. 13. A pronoun sometimes refers to another pronoun of the possessive case as antecedent; as, "All were extolling *my* fortune, *who* had a son endowed with such a disposition."

REM. 14. When the relative is preceded by two nominatives with a neuter verb between them, it may agree with either, according to the sense; as, "I am the man *who command* you;" or, "I am the man *who commands* you." The latter construction is preferable, because it places the relative nearer its antecedent, and by consequence the expression is more perspicuous.

REM. 15. "When the relative and the verb have been determined to agree with either of the preceding nominatives, that agreement must be preserved throughout the sentence;" as, "I am the Lord that *maketh* all things, and stretcheth forth the heavens alone." Isa. 44: 24. By referring *that* to *I*, the construction would be changed; as, "I am the Lord that make all things, and stretch forth the heavens."

REM. 16. In the Scriptures and some ancient writers, *which* is applied to persons; as, "Our Father *which* art in heaven."—*Bible*.

REM. 17. When it is desirable to distinguish between two or more individuals, *which* is applied to persons; as, "I know not *which* of them did it."

REM. 18. When a proper noun is not used in a sense strictly personal, *which* should supply its place, and not *who*; as, "Nero—*which* is but another name for tyranny and cruelty—persecuted the Christians with relentless fury."

REM. 19. The rules commonly used by grammarians with respect to the nominative and objective cases of relative pronouns, are omitted from the conviction that they are entirely unnecessary.

REM. 20. The *gender* of pronouns, except the third person singular of personal pronouns, is known only by reference to their antecedents.

REM. 21. *Who* sometimes refers to collective nouns denoting the individuals expressed by them.

REM. 22. *Which* and *what* often belong, like adjectives, to nouns; as, "*What* man is that?" "*Which* letter do you mean?" When they have this construction in interrogatory sentences, they are called interrogative indefinite adjectives.

POSITION.

1. Relative and personal pronouns are usually placed after their antecedents; as, "He is the man *who* is so devoted to the cause of humanity."

2. An interrogative pronoun always precedes the noun which it represents. Hence the noun for which it stands, is called a *subsequent*; and is contained in the answer to the question; as, "*Who* injured this book? *Jane*."

3. Both *relative* and *interrogative* pronouns are placed at or near the beginning of their clauses, and this is the case even

when they are in the objective case and governed by a succeeding word.

4. Sometimes pronouns precede the nouns which they represent; as, "If a man declares in autumn when he is eating *them*, or in spring when there are *none*, that he loves grapes, etc."

5. In order to avoid obscurity, the relative should be placed as near as possible to its antecedent.

False Syntax—First Course.

The river who runs so smoothly, is very deep. The man which rides on horseback. The trees who are cut down. The lady that was my sister, was in the stage. The teacher which preached to us, was an old man. The earth who was barren that year produced very abundantly the next. The male amongst birds seems to discover no beauty, but in the color of its species. Rebecca took goodly raiment which was with her in the house and put them upon Jacob. The wheel killed another man, which is the sixth which have lost their lives by this means. The fair sex whose task is not to mingle in the labors of public life, has its own part assigned to act. The Hercules man-of-war foundered at sea; it overset, and lost most of its men. The mind of man cannot be long without some food to nourish the activity of its thoughts. What is the reason that our language is less refined than them of Italy, Spain, or France? I do not think any one should incur censure for being tender of her reputation. Thou which has been a witness of the fact, can give an account of it. In religious concerns or which is conceived to be such every man must stand or fall by the decision of the great Judge. Something like that have been here premised, are the conjectures of Dryden.

False Syntax—Second Course.

Whoever entertains such an opinion, he judges erroneously. Whoever goes to the top of Bird Mountain, they will be well recompensed for their trouble. Who first advances he shall die. Observe that little child—do not injure him. A young lamb with his mother came at the shepherd's call. And the sea gave up the dead that was in him; and death and hell delivered up the dead who were in them. Webster was the pillar who upheld the state in that crisis. He is like a beast of

prey who destroys without pity. All were complimenting me upon my happiness in having a brother which has been so successful in his profession. I am the man that plunged into the river and who saved your son's life, and gave that sum of money for his support. Having once disgusted him, he could never regain the favor of Nero, who was indeed another name for cruelty. Who of those men came to his assistance? Flattery, whose nature is to deceive and betray, should be avoided as the poisonous adder. Who was the money paid to? I perceive that thou art a pupil who possesses bright parts, but who hast cultivated them but little. They who much is given to, will have much to answer for.

RULE X.

§ 239. A pronoun having two or more antecedents connected by *and* must agree with them in the plural number ; as, "*Henry and Charles* invested *their* property in land."

REM. 1. When the adjectives *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither* or *no*, are expressed or implied before each of the nouns connected by *and*, the pronoun must be in the singular number ; as, "*each* feeling, *each* thought, and *each* act of life makes *its* impress on the character of man."

REM. 2. When the nouns connected by *and* are emphatical, the singular pronoun may be used ; as, "*James* and not *John* showed *his* bad temper in the affair."

REM. 3. When the antecedents are of different persons, each having the same relative, the first person is preferable to the second, and the second to the third ; as, "*James*, *you*, and *I* remember *our* departure from the land of *our* birth with much interest."

REM. 4. When the antecedents of different genders are represented by pronouns that denote gender by their form, the masculine should be preferred to the feminine, and the feminine to the neuter.

False Syntax—First Course.

Idleness and ignorance is the parent of many vices. What signifies the counsel and care of preceptors, when youth think they have no need of assistance? Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the glorious mediocrity. In unity consists the wel-

fare and security of every society. Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains. Religion and virtue, our best support and highest honor, confers on the mind principles of noble independence.

False Syntax—Second Course.

Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water teem with life. Every person, whatever be their station, are bound by the duties of morality and religion. Neither of those men seem to have any idea, that their opinions may be ill-founded. By discussing each particular in their order, we shall better understand the subject. Charles and not John gave their money to the blind man. Jane but not her brother went to see their cousins in the city. They, you, and I have done their duty. You and I have lost most of your friends.

RULE XI.

§ 240. Pronouns having two or more singular antecedents connected by *or* or *nor*, must agree with them in the singular number; as, "Neither *Henry nor Charles* dissipate *his* time."

REM. 1. The masculine pronoun singular may represent each individual of a collection embracing both sexes; as, "*Every person* that presents *his* petition in faith will be heard."

REM. 2. One or more singular or plural antecedents implying both masculine and feminine genders, and connected by *or* or *nor* may be represented by pronouns of different genders and numbers, if connected by *or* or *nor*; as, "If some *gentleman or lady* will give *his or her* advice in this matter, we will be very thankful."

False Syntax.

Neither John, Charles, nor William saw their friends. Precept nor discipline are not forcible as examples. Neither passion nor envy will rule him by their sway. Neither his father nor his mother could influence him by their example. Man's happiness, or misery, are in a great measure, put into his own hands. There are many faults in spelling which neither analogy nor punctuation justify.

RULE XII.

§ 241. A collective noun denoting the idea of unity should be represented by a pronoun of the singular number; as, "The *crowd* was so great, that the judges with difficulty made their way through *it*."

REM. 1. It is difficult to determine in some cases whether the collective noun denotes the idea of unity or plurality. The only rule by which such cases should be decided is common practice.

REM. 2. A collective noun denoting the idea of plurality, should be represented by a pronoun in the plural number; as, "The *clergy* withdrew *themselves* from the camp." "The assembly were divided in *their* opinion."

False Syntax.

When the nation complains, the rulers should listen to their voice. In the days of youth, the multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as their chief good. The council was not unanimous, and they separated without coming to any determination. The committee was divided in their sentiments, and they have referred the business to a general meeting. The committee were very full when this point was decided, and their judgment has not been called in question.

QUESTIONS ON THE PRONOUNS AND NOUNS.

First Course.

What is rule ninth? Rule tenth? Rule eleventh? Rule twelfth?

Second Course.

What is a compound relative pronoun? To what is the pronoun *it* sometimes applied? Give an instance where the pronoun *it* is used without a definite antecedent. Is *it* ever the subject of a proposition? Give an example. Does a pronoun ever refer to a sentential noun as its antecedent? Is the relative ever omitted? When an *inanimate* object is *personified*, with what does the pronoun referring to it agree? When an antecedent is applied metaphorically, in what sense does the pronoun agree with it? When the antecedent is put by

metonymy for a noun, in what sense does the pronoun agree with it? When the antecedent is put by synecdoche for more or less than its literal signification, in what sense does the pronoun agree with it? By what is a singular noun, preceded by the adjective *many*, sometimes represented? How is *who* applied? Give an instance where a pronoun refers to another pronoun in the possessive case, as the antecedent. How do you dispose of a relative preceded by two nominatives with a neuter verb between? What can you say with regard to the *agreement* of the relative and verb? How is *which* sometimes applied in the Scriptures? In what other case may *which* be applied to persons? When may *which* supply the place of a proper noun? Why are the rules, commonly used for the nominative and objective cases of relative pronouns, omitted in this grammar? How is the *gender* of personal pronouns known? Give the five rules for the *position* of relative and personal pronouns. In what number must the pronoun be, when the adjectives *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither* or *no* are expressed before nouns connected by *and*? When nouns connected by *and* are emphatical, what pronouns may be used? When antecedents are of different persons, each having the same relation, what persons are to be preferred? When should the masculine gender be preferred to the feminine, etc? When do antecedents of different genders require pronouns applicable to each of them? May two nouns of different genders be represented by one? Repeat Rem. 3, § 140. How may we determine when a collective noun denotes idea of unity or plurality? By what should a collective noun denoting idea of plurality be represented?

RULE XIII.

§ 242. Every finite verb must agree with its subject nominative in *person* and *number*; as, "*I read*; *thou readest*; *he reads*; *they read*."

REM. 1. Verbs in the infinitive mode have no number or person, and therefore have no agreement of number or person.

REM. 2. In poetry, when an address or answer is expressed, the verb is sometimes omitted; as, "To whom our great progenitor (*replied*).—*Milton*."

REM. 3. When a neuter verb is between two nominatives, it should agree with that which precedes it; as, "*His meat* was

locusts and wild honey." Except when the natural order of the nominatives is reversed; as, "The wages of sin, *is death.*" "His pavilion *were dark waters* and thick *clouds* of the sky."

REM. 4. A verb sometimes agrees with a verbal or sentential noun, as its subject-nominative; as, "*To lie*, is base." "*That a life of virtue is the safest* is certain."

REM. 5. The position of the verb, may be learned by referring to the rules for the position of the subject with which it agrees, and the object which it governs.

REM. 6. The verb is frequently understood which agrees with a subject-nominative.

False Syntax.

The inquisitive and curious is generally talkative. Great pains has been taken to reconcile the parties. He is an author of more credit than Plutarch, or any other that write lines too hastily. In the conduct of Bonaparte, a mixture of wisdom and folly were very conspicuous. The number of inhabitants in Great Britain and Ireland do not exceed sixteen millions. The smiles that encourage severity of judgment, hides malice and insincerity. He dare not act contrary to his instructions. The support of so many of his relations, were a heavy tax upon his industry; but thou knowest he paid it carefully. The business that related to ecclesiastical meetings, matters, and persons, were to be ordered according to the king's direction. What avails the best sentiments, if persons do not live suitably to them? And the fame of this person, and of his wonderful actions, were diffused throughout the country. The variety of the productions of genius, like that of the operations of nature, are without limit. There are many occasions in life, in which silence and simplicity is true wisdom.

RULE XIV.

§ 243. The subject-nominative being a collective noun and denoting the idea of unity, requires a verb in the singular number; as, "The nation *is* powerful;" "The Parliament *is* dissolved."

REMARK. Collective nouns usually form the plural regularly; as, "The *nations* are powerful." "The *armies* were routed."

False Syntax.

The flock, and not the fleece, are, or ought to be, the objects

of the shepherd's care. The court have just ended, after having sat through the trial of a very long cause. The British parliament are composed of king, lords, and commons. The church have no power to inflict corporal punishment. The fleet were seen sailing up the channel. The regiment consist of a thousand men. The meeting have established several salutary regulations. Never were any people so much infatuated as the Jewish nation. The shoal of herrings were of an immense extent.

RULE XV.

§ 244. The subject-nominative being a collective noun and denoting the idea of *plurality*, requires a verb in the plural number; as, "The *multitude were* clamorous for the object of *their* affections."

False Syntax.

The people rejoices in that which should give it sorrow. The fleet are all arrived and moored in safety. Why does this people wish for greater evidence, when so much has already been given? No society are chargeable with the disapproved misconduct of particular members.

RULE XVI.

§ 245. A verb having two or more singular nominatives connected by *and*, agrees with them in the plural number; as, "*Socrates and Plato were* wise." "*Reason and truth constitute* intellectual gold, which defies destruction."—*Johnson*.

REM. 1. Two or more *singular* nominatives connected by *and*, and modified by *each*, *every* or *no*, do not require a plural verb; as, "*Each freeman and each slave was* destroyed." "*Every hill and dale is* clothed with verdure." "*No music of birds, and no voice of man, was heard* in that solitary place." The verb agrees with the latter, and is understood before each of the preceding.

REM. 2. Two or more singular nominatives connected by *and*, and distinguished by emphasis, do not require a plural verb; as, "*Virtue and not wealth is* the safeguard of youth." "*James, and John also was* absent last eve." "*Knowledge, and knowledge only is* a proof against error." In these examples also,

the verb agrees with the latter noun, and is implied before each of the preceding.

REM. 3. *And* is sometimes implied between two or more nouns which are nominative to the same verb; as, "*Earth, air, fire and water*, are the four elements of the ancients." When several particulars are named, *and* may be expressed or omitted. When the repetition of *and* adds to the ideas dignity, force or solemnity, it should be inserted.

REM. 4. A verb occurring between its nominatives agrees with that which precedes it, and is understood after those that follow it, unless all of them denote the same person or thing; as, "*Lucy will attend you, and also her sister, cousin and friend.*"

REM. 5. If the nominatives are of different persons, the verb should be in the first person plural, rather than the second, and in the second rather than the third; *I, you and he* being represented by *we*; and *you and he* by *you*; as, "*I and the Roman people declare and make war.*"—*Livy*. "*If you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.*"—*Cicero*.

REM. 6. Two or more *singular* nominatives connected by *and* and denoting the same person or thing, are in apposition and require a verb in the singular number; as, "*Thus the patriot, statesman, and the hero is taken away by the hand of death.*"

REM. 7. Two or more verbal or sentential nouns denoting plurality of idea, and connected by conjunctions, require a verb in the plural; as, "*To profess and to possess are two very different things.*"

REM. 8. Two or more verbal or sentential nouns, denoting unity of idea, and connected by conjunctions, require a verb in the singular; as, "*To serve God and enjoy him forever is the privilege of the saint.*"

False Syntax.

His politeness and good disposition was, on the failure of their effect, entirely changed. The planetary system, boundless space, and the immense ocean, affects the mind with sensations of astonishment. What signifies the counsel and care of preceptors, when youth think they have no need of assistance. Each of them, in their turn, receive the benefits to which they are entitled. My counsel to each of you is, that you should make it your endeavor to come to a friendly agreement. Every man's heart and temper is productive of much inward joy or bitterness. When benignity and gentleness reign within, we

are always least in hazard from without ; every person and every occurrence, are beheld in the most favorable light. By discussing each particular, in their order, we shall better understand the subject. On either side of the river was there the tree of life. He and he only are in the wrong. Cooper, Goodrich and Cummings too are here. To see young persons who are courted by health and pleasure, resist all the allurements of vice, and steadily pursue virtue and knowledge, is cheering and delightful to every good mind. To be firm, to be decided, and yet to be free from prejudice, are qualities difficult as it is worthy of imitation.

RULE XVII.

§ 246. A verb having two or more singular nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, agrees with them in the singular number ; as, “ Neither *suffering* nor *danger alarms* him.” “ Fear or interest *affects* him.”

REM. 1. Two or more distinct verbal or sentential nouns connected by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the singular number ; as, “ *To choose life or death is* the privilege of all men.” “ That a drunkard is wretched or sinks into the deepest disgrace *is* not strange.”

REM. 2. A verb having nominatives of different persons connected by *or* or *nor*, agrees with that which immediately precedes it, and is understood after the others ; as, “ Neither persuasion nor arguments *influence* him.” When the nominative which immediately precedes, is parenthetical, the verb agrees with the former in number and person ; as, “ Giavolo, (a celebrated banditti chief,) was captured in the expedition.”

REM. 3. When the nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, denote the same person or thing the verb usually agrees in number with the first ; as, “ Mexican *figures*, or picture writing, represent things, not words ; they exhibit images to the eye, not ideas to the understanding.”—*Murray*.

REM. 4. When the nominatives are of different numbers and persons, and consequently require different forms of the verb, good style requires that the auxiliary of the verb be placed after each of them : as, “ Either thou *hast erred* or I *have*.” “ Neither *were* his faults, nor *was* his danger understood.”

REM. 5. The speaker should name himself last ; as, “ He sa-

luted my friend and *me*." Except in the confession of faults, then he should speak of himself first.

REM. 6. Sometimes singular nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the plural. Such a construction, however, is seldom found in good authors, and therefore should be carefully avoided.

False Syntax.

Man's happiness, or misery, are, in a great measure, put in his own hands. Man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch which move merely as they are moved. A tart reply, a proneness to rebuke, or a captious and contradictory spirit, are capable of embittering domestic life, and of setting friends at variance. Speaking impatiently to servants, or any thing that betrays unkindness or ill-humour, are certainly criminal. Let it be remembered, that it is not the uttering, or the hearing of certain words, that constitute the worship of the Almighty. When sickness, infirmity, or reverse of fortune affect us, the sincerity of friendship is proved. Either thou or I art greatly mistaken. I or thou am the persons who must undertake the business proposed. Both of the scholars, or one of them at least, was present at the transaction. Some parts of the ship and cargo were recovered; but neither the sailors nor the captain was saved. The cares of this life, or the deceitfulness of riches, has choked the seeds of virtue in many a promising mind. Neither did he do it, nor you. Neither were his virtues nor talents appreciated. You, I, and he, all went to New York. He, you and I, all greatly erred in this matter. You acted unjustly; and so did I.

RULE XVIII.

§ 247. The present, perfect and compound perfect participles refer to a noun or pronoun as a subject or actor; as, "I saw a man *walking*." "This *done*, the assembly was dismissed." "*Having wearied* himself with labor, he sat down to rest."

REM. 1. Participles sometimes refer to a verbal or sentential noun; as, "*To do wrong*, ever being his delight." "*That he might free man from sin and its consequences*, being the object of his mission."

REM. 2. The present and compound participles are sometimes used as participial nouns, and are the subjects of verbs, or governed by verbs or prepositions; as, "*Caviling* and *objecting* upon any subject is much easier than clearing up difficulties." "And *in keeping* them there is great reward."—*Bible*. "Wherefore let them that suffer according to the will of God, commit the *keeping* of their souls to him *in well doing*, as unto a faithful Creator."—*Bible*.

REM. 3. Participial nouns are sometimes followed by a noun in the objective case; as, "By always *observing*, the law of right, we have a conscience void of offence toward God and man."

False Syntax.

I have saw many a one. He had done me no harm, for I had wrote my letter before he came home. Had not that misfortune befel my cousin, he would have went to Europe long ago. The French language is spoke in every state in Europe. He returned the goods which he had stole, and made all the reparation in his power. Pliny, speaking of Cato the Censor's disapproving the Grecian orators, expressed himself thus. The not attending to this rule, is the cause of a very common error. They who have bore a part in this labor, shall share the rewards. By too eager pursuit, he run great risk of being disappointed. The cloth had no seam, but was wove throughout.

QUESTIONS ON THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

First Course.

What is rule 13th? Rule 14th? Rule 15th? Rule 16th? Rule 17th? Rule 18th?

Second Course.

Do verbs in the infinitive mode have number and person? In poetry, when an address is made, is the verb sometimes omitted? When a neuter verb is between two nominatives, with which does it agree? Does a verb ever agree with a sentential noun? How may the position of the verb be learned? How do collective nouns usually form their plural? Do two or more *singular* nominatives connected by *and*, and modified by *each*, *every* or *no*, require a plural verb? When two or more singular nominatives are connected by *and*, and dis-

tinguished by emphasis, what verb do they require? Is *and* ever implied between two or more nouns nominative to the same verb? When a verb occurs between its nominatives, is it expressed after each? If the nominatives are of different persons, with which should the verb agree? What verb do two or more singular nominatives connected by *and*, and denoting the same person or thing require? What verb do two or more sentential nominatives, denoting *plurality*, and connected by conjunctions require? What verb do those denoting *unity* require? What verb do sentential nouns connected by *or* or *nor* require? When a verb has nominatives of different persons connected by *or* or *nor*, with which does it agree? When the nominatives connected by *or* or *nor* denote the same person or thing, with which does the verb usually agree? When the nominatives are of different persons and numbers, what does good style require with regard to the verb? When should the speaker name himself? Do good authors ever make use of plural verbs agreeing with singular nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*? What do participles sometimes refer to? For what are the present and compound participles sometimes used? By what are participial nouns sometimes followed?

RULE XIX.

§ 248. A noun or pronoun denoting the possessor, is generally governed by the following noun denoting the thing possessed; as, "In my *Father's* house are many mansions." "The dying *man's* hope."

REM. 1. When the thing possessed belongs to a number severally specified, the sign of the possessive case is in some instances repeated with each, and in others affixed only to the last; as, "He has the surgeon's and physician's advice." "This is *Henry, William* and *Joseph's* estate." The best style sanctions the last example.

REM. 2. When the possessor is described by two or more nouns so connected as not to admit of a possessive sign, and the last of them is in the objective case after a preposition, the possessive sign is affixed to it; as, "Edward the Second, of *England's* queen."—*Bacon on Empire*. "The captain of the *guard's* house."—*Bible*.

REM. 3. When none of the nouns which describe the possessor are in the objective case, the possessive sign is also affixed to the last; as, "John the *Baptist's* time."

REM. 4. The possessive sign is sometimes affixed to an adjective ; as, "In Edward the *Third's* time." Better, "In the time of Edward the Third."

REM. 5. When the nouns denoting the possessor and the thing possessed are not expressed, the possessive sign may be affixed to an adjective ; as, "A rich *man's* joys increase, the poor's decay ;" that is, the poor *man's* joys decay.

REM. 6. When the thing possessed is obvious, the noun denoting the possessor is usually omitted ; as, "Let us go to St. *Paul's* ;" that is, St. Paul's church. "He is at the President's ;" that is, house.

REM. 7. To avoid a hissing sound and to facilitate pronunciation, the apostrophic *s* is sometimes omitted, and the possessive sign is retained when the noun is in the singular number ; as, "For *righteousness'* sake."

REM. 8. Explanatory circumstances should not be introduced between the possessive case and the following noun ; as, "She began to extol the farmer's—*as she called him*—excellent understanding." Better thus, "She began to extol the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

REM. 9. When a sentence consists of terms that denote the name and office of a person, and is so connected as to admit of a pause, the possessive sign is affixed to the noun denoting the person, and not to that which signifies his office ; as, "I left a parcel at *Smith's* the bookseller." "Whose glory did he emulate ? He emulated *Cæsar's*, the greatest general of antiquity." "This is *Paul's* advice, the christian hero, and the greatest apostle of the gentiles."

REM. 10. When the possessive case prevents the smoothness of a sentence, the preposition *of* should be substituted in its place if possible ; as, "The general in the *army's* name, published a declaration." "Unless he is very ignorant of the *kingdom's* condition." Better thus, "In the name *of* the army ;"—"The condition *of* the kingdom."

REM. 11. The practice of connecting three or more nouns dependent on each other by the preposition *of*, which is frequently used instead of the possessive case, should be generally avoided ; as, "The severity of the distress of the son of the king, touched the nation." Better thus, "The severe distress of the king's son, touched the nation."

REM. 12. Participial nouns as well as pure nouns govern the possessive case ; as, "This will be the effect of the pupil's *com-*

posing frequently.” “A courier arrived from Madrid with an account of his Majesty’s *having agreed to the neutrality*.” “There is no reason for *hydrogen’s* being an exception.” The possessive sign should not be omitted in any of these cases. “This will be the effect of the *pupil* composing frequently,” is incorrect.

REM. 13. Sometimes the possessive sign and the preposition *of* are used; as, “Vital air was a discovery *of Dr. Priestley’s*.” “It is a discovery *of Sir Isaac Newton’s*.”

POSITION.

§ 249. The possessive case usually precedes immediately the governing noun; as, “All *nature’s* difference, keeps all *nature’s* peace.” “It is *thine*—i. e. thy province—to calm the troubled spirit.”

REM. 1. To this general rule, there are the following exceptions; as,

1. When a noun in apposition intervenes, or when the case occurs without a sign; as, “In her *brother Absalom’s* house.” “*Moses and Aaron’s* devotions.”

2. When an adjective intervenes; as, “*Evening’s* gentle dews.”

False Syntax.

My ancestors virtue is not mine. A mothers tenderness and a fathers care are natures gift’s for mans advantage. Nevertheless, Asa, his heart was perfect with the Lord. I will not destroy the city for ten sake. It was the men’s, women’s and children’s lot, to suffer great calamities. This measure gained the king, as well as the people’s approbation. Not only the counsel’s and attorney’s, but the judge’s opinion also, favored his cause. Jackson’s, the President of the United States, wife was then dead. I will not for David’s, thy father’s sake. He took refuge at the governor, the king’s representative. In Henry the Eighth’s reign, there was a war. They both had their failings—his, were pride and haughtiness;—her, carelessness and inattention. Charles, shall we go down to Spencer? Were you ever at St. Cloud? Ye should be subject for conscience’s sake. Moses rod was turned into a serpent. They very justly condemned the prodigal’s, as he was called, senseless and extravagant conduct. They implicitly obeyed the protector’s, as they called him, imperious mandates. I bought the

knives at Johnson's, the cutler's. That is the eldest son of the king of England's. This estate of the corporation's is much encumbered. It is very probable that this assembly was called, to clear some doubt which the king had, about the lawfulness of the Hollanders, their throwing off the monarchy of Spain, and their withdrawing entirely their allegiance to that crown.

QUESTIONS ON THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

First Course.

Repeat Rule 19th. What is the usual position of the possessive case?

Second Course.

What is said with regard to the sign of the possessive case, when the thing possessed belongs to a number severally specified? What idea is conveyed in Rem. 2, § 248? When none of the nouns which describe the person are in the objective case, where is the possessive sign? Is the possessive sign ever prefixed to an adjective? Give an instance. Under what other circumstances may the possessive sign be prefixed to an adjective? Mention an example. When is the noun denoting the possessor usually omitted? Why is the apostrophic *s* sometimes omitted? Should explanatory circumstances be introduced between the possessive case and the following noun? When there are terms denoting the name and office of a person, to which should the sign of the possessive be affixed? When is the preposition *of* sometimes substituted for the possessive case? Should three or more nouns, dependent on each other, be connected by *of*? Do participial nouns govern the possessive case? Is the possessive case, and the preposition *of* ever used together? Give an instance. What two exceptions to the general rule for the *position* of the possessive case?

RULE XX.

§ 250. Nouns denoting duration of time, measure or value, are often put after verbs and adjectives without a governing word; as, "He lived thirty *years*." "The wall is ten *feet* high." "This article is worth five *shillings*."

RULE XXI.

§ 251. The object of an active transitive verb is put in the objective case ; as, “ The mind moves the *body*.” “ Children imitate their *parents*.” “ In the beginning God created the *heavens* and the *earth*.”—*Bible*.

REM. 1. The passive verb is sometimes followed by a noun in the objective case ; as, “ Their bishops and abbots were all allowed their *seats* in the house of lords.” “ Theresa was forbid the *presence* of the emperor.” “ He was shown that very *story* in one of his own books.” This, however, is an unnatural inversion of the order of the subject and object. The more proper arrangement is the following : “ Seats in the house of lords were allowed *to* the bishops and abbots.” Such idioms should be carefully avoided.

REM. 2. The object is often understood after transitive verbs ; as, “ He studies (*his lesson*).”

REM. 3. When active transitive verbs are followed by two objectives, one is governed by a preposition understood ; as, “ He promised (*to*) *me* a present ;” except nouns after verbs of asking and teaching, and also those that signify to name or call, render or constitute, to reckon or esteem.

REM. 4. Transitive verbs sometimes govern a part or a whole sentence as their object ; as, “ He is not alarmed so far as to consider *how much nearer he approaches to his end*.” “ *Whether that which we call ecstasy be not dreaming with the eyes open*, I leave to be examined.”—*Locke*, 2. 19. The clauses in italics, in these examples, are sentential nouns.

POSITION.

§ 252. The objective case usually follows the verb by which it is governed. To this general rule there are, however, some exceptions.

1. When the objective case is emphatic, it precedes the nominative ; as, “ *Silver and gold* have I none.”—*Bible*.

“ But through the heart
Should jealousy its *venom* once diffuse.”—*Thomson*.

2. When the objective is a pronoun ; as, “ *Whom* ye ignorantly worship, *him* declare I unto you.”—*Bible*.

3. A noun with *whatever*, *whatsoever* or *whichever* preceding it,

is generally placed before the governing word; as, "Whatsoever *ideas* we have."—*Locke*. Sometimes it is placed after it; as, "He gave him what *things* he chose."

False Syntax.

They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, cannot relish the simple pleasures of nature. You have reason to dread his wrath, which one day will destroy ye both. That is the friend who you must receive cordially, and who you cannot esteem too highly. He who committed the offence you should correct, not I who am innocent. Though he now takes pleasure in them he will one day repent him of indulgences so unwarrantable. It will be difficult to agree his conduct with the principles he professes. To ingratiate with some, by traducing others, marks a base and despicable mind. If such maxims, and such practices prevail, what has become of decency and virtue? He was entered into the connexion, before the consequences were considered. Search the scriptures; for in them ye think ye have eternal life; and they are them which testify of me. He so much resembled my brother, that, at first sight, I took it to be he. It could not have been her, for she always behaves discreetly. Let them and we unite to oppose this growing evil. Whatever others do, let thou and I act wisely. I cannot tell who has befriended me, unless it is him from whom I have received many benefits.

RULE XXII.

§ 253. Verbs of asking and teaching are followed by two objectives, one of a person and the other of the thing; as, "When they shall read who taught *Epaminondas music*." "A parent teaches his *children good manners*." "Ask *him his opinion*." "You have asked *him the news*."

RULE XXIII.

§ 254. "Verbs signifying to name or call, to render or constitute, to esteem or reckon, are followed by two objectives, denoting the same person or thing;" as, "He named his *child John*." "He named the *city Antioch*." "He rendered *himself* a pleasing *companion*."

RULE XXIV.

§ 255. Active transitive participles are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as, "Having accomplished his *labor*, he retired to rest." "A person pursuing one *object* constantly, will very surely attain-it."

RULE XXV.

§ 256. Active intransitive, neuter or passive verbs have the same case after them as before, when it denotes the same person or thing; as, "*It* is *I*, be not afraid." "*Who* do men say that *I* am?" "The *child* was named *John*." "*Dido* walks a *queen*."

REM. 1. Some active intransitive verbs govern an objective of a kindred signification to their own; as, "He *lived* a *life* of virtue." "Let me die the *death* of the righteous, and let my last end be like his." Num. 23: 10. "And Joseph *dreamed* a *dream*." Gen. 37: 5. "To *run* a *race*."

REM. 2. When an intransitive, neuter or passive verb in the infinitive mode has an objective case before it, the noun or pronoun that follows it must be in the same case; as, "I knew *him* to be a *man* of integrity." Sometimes the verb in the infinitive is understood.

False Syntax.

Suspecting not only ye, but they also, I was studious to avoid all intercourse. From having exposed himself too freely in different climates, he entirely lost his health. By observing of truth, you will command esteem, as well as secure peace. A person may be great or rich by chance, but cannot be good, without the taking pains for it. The middle station of life seems to be most advantageously situated for gaining of wisdom. Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon supplying our wants; and riches upon the enjoying our superfluities. Propriety of pronunciation is the giving to every word that sound, which the most polite usage of the language appropriates to it. It was from our misunderstanding the directions that we lost our way. By reading of books written by the best authors, his mind became highly improved. He had not long enjoyed repose, before he began to be weary of having nothing

to do. Though his conduct was in some respects exceptionable, yet he dared not commit so great an offence, as that which was proposed to him. He writes as the best authors would have wrote, had they writ on the same subject. His resolution was too strong to be shook by slight opposition. The bread that has been eat is soon forgot. They have chose the part of honor and virtue.

RULE XXVI.

§ 257. Active intransitive, passive and neuter participles are followed by the same cases as their verbs ; as, "He being a *man* of leisure sought every place of amusement."

REM. 1. Sometimes neuter participles have a noun or pronoun in the possessive case before them and the nominative case after them ; as, "The value of the graphic art consists in *its being* a medium for the acquisition of knowledge, and for the communication of it."—*Porter's Analysis*, p. 15.

RULE XXVII.

§ 258. Prepositions govern the objective case ; as, "They went out *from us*, but were not *of us* ; for if they had been *of us*, they would have continued *with us*." 1 John 2: 19.

REM. 1. In parsing the preposition the learner should be required to state between what tenses of the proposition or sentence it expresses a relation.

REM. 2. *To* is not a preposition, when it is a sign of the infinitive mode.

REM. 3. The prepositions *to* and *for* are often understood before pronouns, and sometimes before nouns ; as, "Give *me* the book." "Get *me* some paper," i. e. *to me*, and *for me*. "Wo is *me*," i. e. *to me*. — "He was banished *England*," i. e. *from England*.

REM. 4. Prepositions are often understood after *like* or *unlike*, and adjectives that denote *similarity* and *contiguity* ; as, "He is like his *father*," i. e. *to his father*. "He went near *him*," i. e. *to him*.

REM. 5. Prepositions expressed sometimes govern a noun or pronoun understood ; as, "He gazed *around*," i. e. *him*.

REM. 6. Different relations must be expressed by different prepositions, though in conjunction with the same verb or adjective; as, "To converse *with* a person *upon* a subject *in* a house," etc.—*Murray*.

REM. 7. Sometimes the preposition is separated from the noun which it governs.

POSITION.

§ 259. Prepositions are put immediately before the nouns and pronouns which they govern. There are the following exceptions; as,

1. When the preposition is separated from the relative it governs; as, "*Whom* will you give it *to*?" Instead of "*To whom* will you give it?" "He is an author *whom* I am much delighted *with*." In colloquial and epistolary style, this idiom is common, and perhaps allowable; but in grave and elevated style, it is inelegant and perplexing. Sometimes the pronoun which precedes it and which it governs is understood; as "There is the man I was working for," i. e. *whom*, etc.

2. When the preposition is separated from the noun or pronoun which it governs, to connect different prepositions with the same word; as, "To suppose the zodiac and planets to be efficient *of* and antecedent *to* themselves." This idiom in forms of law where fulness and exactness of expression is of the highest importance, may be allowable. But in both familiar and solemn style, such a construction should always be avoided as inelegant.

3. Sometimes a preposition is placed before an adjective and unites with it to constitute adverbial phrases; as, "In general;" "at large;" "at least;" "at last."

False Syntax.

He laid the suspicion upon somebody, I know not who, in the company. To poor we, there is not much hope remaining. What concord can subsist between those who commit crimes, and they who abhor them? Who did he receive that intelligence from? The person who I travelled with, has sold the horse which he rode on during the journey. To have no one whom we heartily wish well to, and whom we are warmly concerned for, is a deplorable state. On these occasions, the pronoun is governed by, and consequently agrees with, the preceding word. She finds a difficulty of fixing her mind. There

was no water, and he died for thirst. The error was occasioned by compliance to earnest entreaty, though conformable with custom, it is not warrantable. His parents think on him, and his improvements, with pleasure and hope. There appears to have been a million men brought into the field. The Saxons reduced the greater part of Britain to their own power. They were some distance from home, when the accident occurred. The politeness of the world has the same resemblance with benevolence, that the shadow has with the substance. Civility marks its way among every kind of persons. When we have had a true taste for the pleasures of true virtue, we can have no relish of those of vice. I have been to London, after having resided a year at France; and I now live in Islington. They have just landed in Boston, and are going for Washington.

QUESTIONS ON THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

First Course.

What is the 20th rule? The 21st? Where is the objective case usually placed? What is the 22nd rule? Rule 23d? Rule 24th? Rule 25th? Rule 26th? Rule 27th? What is the general rule for the position of prepositions?

Second Course.

Is a passive verb ever followed by a noun in the objective case? Is the object often understood after transitive verbs? When an active verb is followed by two objectives, how is one of them governed? Do transitive verbs ever govern a whole sentence? Give an illustration. What three exceptions are there to the general rule for the position of the objective? Give an example where an active-intransitive verb governs an objective of a kindred signification with its own. When an intransitive, neuter or passive verb in the infinitive has an objective case before it, in what case must the noun or pronoun be, which follows it? In parsing a preposition, what should the learner be required to state? When is *to* not a preposition? What prepositions are often understood before nouns, and before some pronouns? After what adverbs and adjectives is the preposition sometimes understood? Do prepositions expressed ever govern a noun understood? Are different relations expressed by different prepositions, though in conjunction with the same verbs or adjectives? What two exceptions to the general rule for the *position* of prepositions?

RULE XXVIII.

§ 260. The infinitive mode may be governed by verbs, participles, adjectives, nouns and pronouns ; as, “He desires *to learn*.” “He is wishing him *to depart*.”

REM. 1. The infinitive is sometimes governed by *as* and *than* ; as, “An object so high *as to be invisible*.” “It were better to give a little, *than to lose* the whole.” “A question so obscure *as to perplex* the understanding.”

REM. 2. The infinitive mode is sometimes governed by an adverb, and a preposition when it is not used as a verbal noun ; as, “He is wise *enough to avoid* danger.” “My friend is *about to leave*.”

REM. 3. The verb which governs the infinitive is often understood ; as, “To be, or not to be,” i. e. *am I to be*, etc.

RULE XXIX.

§ 261. Verbs following *bid*, *dare*, *let*, *see*, *need*, *make*, *hear*, *feel* and their participles, are put in the infinitive mode without the sign *to* prefixed ; as, “He bids him go.” “He makes him *labor*.”

REMARK. When the verbs above named are in the passive voice the sign *to* is expressed, and also sometimes when they are in the active voice ; as, “He was *seen to walk*.” “I heard him *to say*.” The latter expression, however, is inelegant, and should be avoided.

False Syntax.

I need not to solicit him to do a kind action. I have seen some young persons to conduct themselves very discreetly. It is a great support to virtue, when we see a good mind to maintain its patience and tranquillity, under injuries and affliction, and to cordially forgive its oppressors. And the multitude wondered, when they saw the lame to walk, and the blind to see. It is the difference of their conduct, which makes us see the one, and to reject the other. They acted with so much reserve, that some persons doubted them to be sincere.

RULE XXX.

§ 262. The infinitive is sometimes used as a verbal noun, and may be the *subject* of a verb, or the *object* of a transitive verb or preposition ; as, “ *To see the sun is pleasant.*”

REMARK. When the verbal noun is in the nominative case, it requires the verb to be in the third person.

RULE XXXI.

§ 263. The infinitive mode denoting purpose or motive, and not depending upon the rest of the sentence, is considered absolute. In such a construction, it supplies the place of *that*, and an entire proposition or sentence ; as, “ *To confess the truth, I was in fault ;*” i. e. *that I may confess the truth, I was in fault.*” “ *To conclude,*” i. e. *that I may conclude, etc.*

REMARK. “This idiom seems to be derived from the use of *for* before the verb *to see*. The more modern practice is to prefix some noun ; as, “*In order to see,*” or, “*With a view to see.*”

QUESTIONS ON THE INFINITIVE MODE.

First Course.

What is Rule 28th ? Rule 29th ? Rule 30th ? Rule 31st ?

Second Course.

What two adverbs sometimes govern the infinitive ? Is the infinitive ever governed by an adverb and a preposition together ? Give some instances. Is the sign *to* ever prefixed to the verbs mentioned in the 29th rule ? Is this mode of expression elegant ? When the verbal noun is in the nominative case, in what person must the verb be ? From what is the peculiar construction mentioned in Rule 31st derived ? What is the more modern practice ?

RULE XXXII.

§ 264. Copulative and disjunctive conjunctions connect words that are in the same construction ; as, “ John *and* James are studying ; “ The mind loves *and* admires simple truth.” “ Washington was a great *and* a good man.”

REM. 1. “ Words are in the same construction when they have the same relation to some other word or words in the sentence.” Hence, nouns are in the same construction when they agree in gender, number and case. Verbs are in the same construction when they are in the same mode and tense. Adjectives are in the same construction when they describe the same noun or pronoun. Adverbs are in the same construction when they qualify the same word.

REM. 2. Copulative and disjunctive conjunctions, as well as others, sometimes connect words that are not in the same construction.

REM. 3. *But* and *save* are parsed as prepositions when they denote *except* or *aside from*, and are followed by a noun or pronoun in the objective case ; as, “ All have prospered *but* the youngest.”

REM. 4. *As* often connects nouns that denote the same person or thing ; as, “ He treated *him* as a *human being*.”

REM. 5. Nouns or pronouns which follow *than*, *as* or *but*, are frequently the subjects of verbs understood ; as, “ The discussion is darker *than* the subject.”

REM. 6. Conjunctions acquire the nature of nouns and are parsed as such.

RULE XXXIII.

§ 265. Adverbs modify *verbs*, *participles*, *adjectives* or *adverbs* ; as, “ He made a *very* sensible discourse ; he spoke unaffectedly and *forcibly*.”

REM. 1. The adverbs *whence*, *hence* and *thence* imply the preposition *from*, and therefore it should not be used before them ; as, “ An ancient author prophesies *from whence* ;” better *whence* alone.

REM. 2. Sometimes adverbs are used as nouns, and should be parsed as such ; as, “ For all the promises of God in him

are *yea* and in him *amen*, unto the glory of God by us." 2 Cor. 1: 20.

REM. 3. Adverbs sometimes modify verbs understood; as, "Charge! Chester, charge! On! Stanley, on!"—*Scott*. Here *on* modifies *go* understood.

REM. 4. Connective adverbs sometimes qualify two verbs; as, "He had left *when* his brother arrived." Here *when* modifies *left* and *arrived*.

REM. 5. Adverbs often acquire by their position in a sentence the nature of an adjective; as, "The *above* accounts."

REM. 6. *There* is often used as an expletive, adding nothing to the sense; as, "*There* is a person at the door." The same may be expressed thus: A person is at the door.

REM. 7. Adverbs should not generally be used as adjectives, nor adjectives as adverbs; as, "*exceeding lovely*;" better thus: *exceedingly lovely*.

REM. 8. *Amen*, construed as an adverb, is generally used independently at the close of affirmations and prayers, and denotes, *so let it be*; as, "The grace of our Lord Jesus Christ be with you all. *Amen*."

REM. 9. *Nay*, *no*, *yea* and *yes*, when construed as adverbs, are used independently and are generally equivalent to a sentence, especially in answering questions; as, "Will you comply with my terms? *No*," i. e. *I will not comply*. "Will you go to town to-day? *Yes*," i. e. *I will go to-day*.

REM. 10. *No* should not be used instead of *not*, and made to modify verbs; as, "You must submit, whether you choose, or *no*." It should be *not*, as the verb *choose* is understood. The adverb *no* does not qualify a verb or participle.

REM. 11. The adverbs *no*, *nay*, *yes* and *yea*, also some others, are sometimes repeated to make the expression more intense; as, "Will you betray your trust? *No! no!* I will not." "*Verily, verily*, I say unto you, except a man be born again, he cannot see the kingdom of God." John 3: 3.

REM. 12. Sometimes adverbs are repeated for the sake of intensity; as, "*Verily, verily*, I say unto you."

POSITION.

§ 266. Adverbs are generally placed near the words which they modify. The following remarks will more fully illustrate the position of adverbs.

REM. 1. They are generally placed before adjectives ; as, "*Sincerely* penitent." "*Widely* different."

REM. 2. Adverbs generally follow the verb and participle when single ; as, "He labors *diligently*." If the verb is transitive and has an object after it, the adverb is placed after the object ; as, "He received reproof *thankfully*." To this general rule, there are many exceptions. Regard should always be had to perspicuity, harmony and force in placing adverbs in a sentence.

REM. 3. When an auxiliary verb and a perfect participle are used, the adverb is placed between them, or after the participle ; as, "I am *seriously* alarmed." "The rebuke was given *hastily*."

REM. 4. "When adverbs are emphatical, they may introduce and be separated from the verb which they modify ; as, "*How completely* this most amiable of human virtues *had taken* possession of his soul."—*Porter's Lect.* 8. *Always* uniformly precedes the verb. *Never* commonly precedes a single verb, except *be*, which it follows ; as, "We are *never absent* from church on Sunday." It is sometimes placed before an auxiliary ; as, "He *never* has been at court ; but it is more correctly and elegantly placed after the first auxiliary ; as, "He has *never* been at court." "He has *never* been intoxicated." This word has a peculiar use in the phrase, "Ask me *never* so much dowry." Gen. xxxiv. "The voice of charmers charming *never* so wisely." Psalm lviii. The sense is, "Ask me so much dowry *as never was asked before*,"—an abbreviation singularly expressive of the idea of asking to any amount or extent. Authors not understanding it, have substituted *ever* for *never*, which impairs the force, if it does not destroy the sense of the phrase. The use of both is now common, but *never* is preferable ; as, "Some agreements indeed, though *never* so expressly made, are deemed of so important a nature, that they ought not to rest in verbal promise only." *Black. Com.* B. 3. ch. 9. (See Web. Gram. p. 133.)

REM. 5. When an adverb modifies a verb in the infinitive mode, it should never be placed between the *to* and the *verb* ; as, "He told him *to carefully observe* the conduct of men ;" better thus : He told him *to observe carefully* the conduct of men.

False Syntax.

He was pleasing not often, because he was vain. We may happily live, though our possessions are small. From whence

we may date likewise the period of this event. It cannot be impertinent or ridiculous therefore to remonstrate. He offered an apology, which not being admitted, he became submissive. Unless he have more government of himself, he will be always discontented. He was determined to invite back the king, and to call together his friends. My opinion was given on rather a cursory perusal of the book. Not only he found her well employed, but pleased and tranquil also. It is too common with mankind, to be engrossed and overcome totally, by present events. When the Romans were pressed with a foreign enemy, the women contributed all their rings and jewels voluntarily, to assist the government. They could not persuade him, though they were never so eloquent. He drew up a petition where he too freely represented his own merits. His follies had reduced him to a situation where he had much to fear and nothing to hope. Charles left the seminary too early, since when, he has made very little improvement. Nothing is better worth the while of young persons, than the acquisition of knowledge and virtue.

RULE XXXIV.

§ 267. Two negatives in the same proposition, destroy each other, or are equivalent to an affirmative. One only, therefore should be used ; as, “ *Nor* did they *not* perceive them,” i. e. they did perceive them. This is not generally a happy mode of expression. Many vulgar phrases are used from not observing the above rule ; as, “ He did *not* owe *nothing*.” “ He did *not* do *nothing*.” “ He *don’t* know *nothing*.” The use of such expressions should be carefully avoided.

REMARK. When one of the negatives is joined to another word, the two negatives form a pleasing and delicate variety of expression ; as, “ He is *not unwilling* to labor.”

False Syntax.

Neither riches, nor honors, nor no such perishing goods, can satisfy the desires of an immortal spirit. We need not, nor do not, confine his operations to narrow limits. I am resolved not to comply with the proposal, neither at present, nor at any future time. Do not interrupt me yourselves, nor let no one dis-

turb my retirement. The measure is so exceptionable, that we cannot by no means permit it. I have received no information on the subject, neither from him, nor his friend.

QUESTIONS ON THE ADVERBS.

First Course.

What do adverbs modify? Where are adverbs generally placed? What effect have two negatives in a sentence?

Second Course.

What do the adverbs *whence*, *hence* and *thence* imply? Are adverbs ever used as nouns? Do adverbs sometimes modify verbs understood? What sort of adverbs sometimes qualify two verbs? How do adverbs sometimes acquire the nature of adjectives? How is *there* often used? Should adverbs be used as adjectives, and adjectives as adverbs? How are *nay*, *no*, *yea* and *yes* used when construed as adverbs, and to what are they equivalent? Should *no* be used instead of *not* for the purpose of modifying a verb? Why are the adverbs *no*, *nay*, *yes*, *yea* and some others, sometimes repeated? Are adverbs placed before adjectives or after them? Do adverbs generally follow verbs and participles? When an auxiliary verb and perfect participle are used, where is the adverb placed? When adverbs are emphatical, how may they be arranged? Where is *always* placed? What is said of *never*? When one of two negatives is joined to another word, what do the two negatives form?

RULE XXXV.

§ 268. Interjections are not dependent on other parts of speech; as, "*Oh!* virtue, how amiable thou art."

REM. 1. The interjections *O!* *Oh!* *Ah!* are followed by the objective of a pronoun in the first person, without a governing word; as, "*O! me.*" "*Oh! me.*" "*Ah! me.*"

REM. 2. Interjections may be placed before or after a simple sentence, and sometimes between its parts; as, "*Oh!* thou art cruel."

False Syntax.

Oh, my father! Oh, my friend! how great has been my ingratitude! Oh, piety! virtue! how insensible have I been to your charms?

But him, the chieftain of them all,
His sword hangs rusting on the wall.

These all thy gifts and graces we display,
Thee, only thee, directing all our way.

QUESTIONS ON THE INTERJECTIONS.

First Course.

Are interjections dependent on other parts of speech?

Second Course.

By what are the interjections *O*, *Oh*, *Ah*, followed? Where are interjections placed?

RULE XXXVI.

§ 269. When supposition, suspension or doubt is denoted, the subjunctive mode should be used.

REM. 1. When a future doubtful action or state is expressed, the present subjunctive should be used; as, "*If* his son *ask* bread, will he give him a stone?" It is urged by Dr. Webster, that when a future contingent action is denoted, the auxiliaries *shall*, *will* or *should* is implied, and his reasoning appears correct.

REM. 2. When a mere supposition with indefinite time is made, the imperfect subjunctive should be used; as, "*If* it *were* so, it would not be allowed."

REM. 3. The conjunctions *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except* and *lest*, require verbs in the subjunctive mode.

REM. 4. Verbs in the subjunctive mode, have two forms, the indicative, and the subjunctive. The indicative form of the subjunctive, has the same personal terminations as verbs of the indicative mode. The subjunctive form has personal terminations different from those of the indicative mode. Both forms are used by good authors.

QUESTIONS ON THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

First Course.

Repeat Rule.

Second Course.

When a future doubtful action is expressed, what tense of the subjunctive is used? When a mere supposition with indefinite time is made, what tense of the subjunctive is used? What mode do the conjunctions *if, though, unless, except, and lest* require? What two forms have verbs in the subjunctive mode?

EXAMPLES IN PROSE.

When Socrates was asked¹ what² man approached the nearest³ to perfect happiness, he answered: "That⁴ man who has the fewest wants."

She⁵ who studies her glass, neglects her heart.

Between passion and lying, there⁵ is not a finger's breadth.

The⁶ freer we feel ourselves in the presence of others, the⁶ more free are they; he who is free, makes free.

Addison has remarked, with equal piety and truth, "that⁷ the creation is a perpetual feast to the mind of a good man."

He who shuts out all evasion when⁸ he promises, loves truth.

The laurels of the warrior are dyed in blood, and bedewed with the tears of the widow and the orphan.

Between fame and true honor, a distinction is to be⁹ made. The former¹⁰ is a loud and noisy applause; the latter¹⁰ a more silent and internal homage. Fame floats on the breath of the multitude, honor rests on the judgment of the thinking. Fame may give praise while it withholds esteem; true honor implies esteem mingled with respect. The one¹¹ regards particular distinguished talents; the other looks up to the whole character.

There is a certain species of religion, (if¹² we can give it that name,) which is placed wholly in speculation and belief; in the

¹ § 126.² 238, R. 22.³ 235, R. 10.⁴ § 236.⁵ § 265, R. 5.⁶ § 229, R. 3.⁷ § 187.⁸ § 173, R. 5.⁹ § 260.¹⁰ § 112.¹¹ § 229, R. 15.¹² § 185.

regularity of external homage ; or in fiery zeal about contested opinions.

Xenophanes, who was reproached with being¹ timorous because he would not venture his money in a game at dice, made this manly and sensible reply : “ I confess I am exceedingly timorous ; for² I dare not commit an evil action.”

He loves nobly, (I speak of friendship,) who is not jealous when he has partners of love.

Our happiness consists in the pursuit, much more than in the attainment of any temporal good.

Let me repeat it ;—he only is great who³ has the habits of greatness.

Prosopopoeia, or personification⁴ is a rhetorical figure, by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects ; as, “ The ground thirsts for rain.” “ The earth smiles with plenty.”

The proper and rational conduct of men, with regard to futurity is regulated by two considerations ; first, that much of what it contains, must remain to us absolutely unknown ; next, that there are also some events in it, which may be certainly known and foreseen.

The gardens of the world produce only deciduous flowers. Perennial ones⁵ must be sought in the delightful regions above. Roses without thorns are the growth of paradise alone.

How⁶ many⁷ rules and⁸ maxims of life⁹ might be spared¹⁰ could we fix¹¹ a principle of virtue within ;¹² and inscribe the living sentiment of the love of God in the affections ! He¹³ who loves righteousness is master of all the distinctions in morality. He who from the benignity of his nature erected this world for the abode of men ; he who furnished it so richly for our accommodation, and stored it with so much beauty for our entertainment ; he, who since we first entered into life, hath followed us with such a¹⁴ variety of mercies ; this amiable and beneficent being, surely¹⁵ can have no pleasure in our disappointment and distress.

He knows our frame ; he remembers we are dust ; and looks to frail man, we are assured, with such pity as a father beareth to his children.

¹ § 247, R. 2.

² § 186.

³ § 248.

⁴ § 234, R. 6.

⁵ § 110, R. 1.

⁶ § 265.

⁷ § 81.

⁸ § 264.

⁹ § 54, R. 3.

¹⁰ § 140.

¹¹ § 140, R. 10.

¹² § 258, R. 5.

¹³ § 93, R. 5.

¹⁴ § 229, R. 7.

¹⁵ § 266, R. 2.

One¹ of the first lessons both² of religion and² of wisdom, is to moderate³ our expectations and hopes ; and not to set³ forth on the voyage of life, like men,⁴ who expect to be always carried⁵ forward with a favorable gale. Let us be satisfied if the path we tread be easy⁶ and smooth,⁶ though it be not strewed with flowers.

Providence never intended, that the art of living⁷ happily in this world should depend on that deep penetration, that acute sagacity, and those refinements of thought, which few possess. It has dealt more graciously with us ; and made happiness depend on uprightness of intention, much more than on extent of capacity.

Most of our passions flatter us in their rise. But their beginnings are treacherous ; their growth is imperceptible ; and the evils which they carry in their train lie concealed, until their dominion is established. What Solomon says of one of them holds true of them all, "that their beginning is, as when one letteth out water." It issues from a small chink, which once might have been easily stopped ; but being neglected it soon widened by the stream ; till the bank is at last totally thrown down, and the flood is at liberty to deluge the whole plain.

Prosperity debilitates instead of strengthening the mind. Its most common effect is, to create an extreme sensibility to the slightest wound. It fomented impatient desires ; and raises expectations which no success can satisfy. It fosters a false delicacy, which sickens in the midst of indulgence. By repeated gratification it blunts the feelings of men to what is pleasing ; and leaves them unhappily acute to whatever is uneasy.

Hence⁸ the gale which another would scarcely feel, is to the prosperous a rude tempest. Hence⁸ the rose-leaf doubled below them on the couch, as it is told of the effeminate Sybarite, breaks their rest. Hence the disrespect shown by Mordecai preyed with such violence on the heart of Haman.

Anxiety is the poison of human life. It is the parent of many sins and more miseries. In a world where everything is so doubtful ; where we may succeed in our wish and be miserable ; where we may be disappointed⁹ and blest in the disappointment, what mean this restless stir and commotion of

¹ § 235, R. 4, & 5.

² § 182, R. 3.

³ § 262, R. & 245.

⁴ § 258, R. 4.

⁵ § 260,

⁶ § 235, R. 15.

⁷ § 247. R. 2, & 3.

⁸ § 265, R. 1.

⁹ § 133, & 132, R. 1.

mind? Can our solicitude alter the course or unravel the intricacy of human events? Can our curiosity pierce through the cloud which the Supreme Being hath made impenetrable to mortal eye? No situation is so remote, and no station so unfavorable as to preclude access to the happiness of a future state. A road is opened by the Divine Spirit, to those blissful habitations, from all corners of the earth, and from all conditions of human life; from the peopled city, and from the solitary desert; from the cottages of the poor; and from the palaces of kings; from the dwellings of ignorance and simplicity, and from the regions of science and improvement.

The scenes which present themselves¹ at our entering upon the world are commonly flattering. Whatever² they be in themselves, the lively spirits of the young, gild every opening prospect. The field of hope appears to stretch wide³ before them. Pleasure seems to put forth its blossoms on every side. Impelled⁴ by desire, forward they rush with inconsiderate ardor; prompt⁴ to decide and to choose; averse to hesitate or inquire; credulous, because⁵ untaught by experience; rash, because unacquainted with danger; headstrong, because unsubdued by disappointment. Hence arise the perils to which they are exposed, and which, too often,⁶ from want of attention to faithful admonition, precipitate them into ruin irretrievable.

By the unhappy excesses of irregular pleasure in youth, how⁷ many amiable dispositions are corrupted or destroyed! How many rising capacities and powers are suppressed! How many flattering hopes of parents and friends are totally⁸ extinguished? Who⁹ but must drop a tear over human nature, when¹⁰ he beholds that morning which arose so bright, overcast with such untimely darkness; that sweetness of temper which once engaged many hearts, that modesty which was so prepossessing, those abilities which promised extensive usefulness, all sacrificed at the shrine of low sensuality; and one, who was formed for passing through life in the midst of public esteem, cut off by his vices, at the beginning of his course; or sunk for the whole of it, into insignificance and contempt? These, O¹¹ sinful pleasure!¹² are thy trophies. It is thus¹³ that, coöperat-

¹ § 98.² § 106, R. 7 & 10.³ § 235, R. 13.⁴ § 247.⁵ § 186.⁶ § 173, 6.⁷ § 174, 4, R. 2.⁸ § 176, 1.⁹ § 242, R. 6.¹⁰ § 173, 5.¹¹ § 268.¹² § 233, R. 2.¹³ § 174, 4.

ing with the foe of God and man, thou degradest human honor
and blastest the opening¹ prospects of human felicity.

To a Butterfly.

Stay² near me³—do² not take thy flight!
A little longer stay in sight!
Much converse do I find in thee,
Historian⁴ of my infancy!
Float near me;³ do not yet⁵ depart!
Dead times revive in thee:
Thou bringest, gay creature⁴ as thou art,
A solemn image to my heart,
My father's family!⁴
Oh! pleasant, pleasant, were the days
The time when in our childish plays,
My sister Emmeline⁴ and I
Together⁶ chased the butterfly!
A very hunter⁴ did I rush
Upon⁷ the prey:—with⁷ leaps and springs
I followed on from⁷ brake to bush;
But she, God love her! feared to brush
The dust from off its wings.

Dear native regions,⁸ I foretell,
From what I feel at this farewell,
That wheresoe'er⁹ my steps may tend
And whensoe'er¹⁰ my course shall end,
If in that hour a single tie
Survive of local sympathy,
My soul will cast the backward view,
The longing look alone on you.

Thus from the precincts of the west,
The sun, when sinking down to rest,
Though¹¹ his departing radiance fail
To illuminate the hollow vale,
A lingering lustre fondly throws
On the dear mountain-tops where first he rose.

¹ § 235, R. 1.

² § 136, R. 1.

³ § 258, R. 4.

⁴ § 234.

⁵ § 184, R. 2.

⁶ § 174, 4.

⁷ § 179, R. 2.

⁸ § 233, R. 2.

⁹ § 175, 1.

¹⁰ § 173, 5.

¹¹ § 185.

'Tis¹ eight-o'clock,—a clear March night,
 The moon is up—the sky is blue,
 The owlet, in the moonlight air,
 Shouts, from nobody knows where ;
 He lengthens out his lonely shout,
 Halloo ! halloo ! a long halloo !

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

Extract from Robert Hall's Sermon on the Death of Rev. John Ryland, D. D.

It² has been alleged by unbelievers as a defect in the morality of the gospel, that it neglects to inculcate patriotism and friendship. In regard to the first of these, it seems a sufficient reply, that,³ though⁴ an attachment to our country, as such, is not expressly enjoined in the New Testament, the duties which result from the relation in which Christians stand to their rulers, are prescribed with great perspicuity, and enforced by very solemn sanctions ; and if the reciprocal duties of princes and magistrates are not enjoined with equal explicitness, (as could not be expected in writings where they are not addressed,) the design of their appointment is defined in such a manner as leaves them at no loss to perceive what⁵ it is that³ they owe to the community. But⁶ where these duties are faithfully discharged by each party, the benefits derived from the social compact are so⁷ justly⁷ appreciated and so deeply felt, that the love of country is less liable⁸ to defect than⁹ to excess. In all well-ordered polities, if we may judge from the experience of past ages, the attachment of men to their country, is in danger of becoming an all-absorbing¹⁰ principle, inducing not merely a forgetfulness of private interest, but of the immutable claims of humanity and justice. In the most virtuous times of the Roman republic, their country was the idol, at whose¹¹ shrines her greatest patriots were at all times prepared to offer whole hecatombs of human victims ; the interests of other nations were no further regarded than as they could be rendered subservient to the gratification of her ambition ; and mankind at large were considered as possessing but such as might, with the utmost propriety, be merged in that devouring vortex. With all

¹ § 238, R. 4, & § 92, R. 1.

² § 238, R. 4.

³ § 187.

⁴ § 185.

⁵ § 238, R. 1.

⁶ § 184.

⁷ § 176, R. 1.

⁸ § 88.

⁹ § 264.

¹⁰ § 77.

¹¹ § 118.

their talents and their grandeur, they were unprincipled oppressors, leagued in a determined conspiracy against the liberty and independence of mankind. In the eyes of an enlightened philanthropist, patriotism, pampered to such an excess, loses the name of virtue; it is the bond and cement of a guilty confederation. It was worthy of the wisdom of our great legislator to decline the express inculcation of a principle so liable to degenerate into excess, and to content himself with prescribing the virtues which are sure to develope it as far as is consistent with the dictates of universal benevolence.

The second¹ part of the objection to which we have alluded is susceptible of a similar answer. Let it be admitted that our Lord did not formally prescribe the cultivation of friendship; and what then?² He prescribed the virtues out of which it will naturally grow; he prescribed the cultivation of benevolence in all its diversified modes of operation. In his personal ministry and in that³ of his apostles, he enjoined humility, forbearance, gentleness, kindness, and the most tender sympathy with the infirmities and distresses of our fellow-creatures; and his whole life was a transcript of these virtues. But these, in the ordinary course of events, and under the usual arrangements of Providence, are the best preparation for friendship, as well as⁴ the surest guarantee for the discharge of its duties, and the observance of its rights. For such is the secret affinity of mind to mind, such the social constitution of man, that he who is imbued with these dispositions can scarcely fail, in the pilgrimage of life, to contract a friendship with one or more of his species. Accustomed to look upon the whole human family with a benign aspect, some members of it will attract more of his attention, and awaken more of his complacency, than others; where their virtues are equal, some more than ordinary congeniality of taste and temper, will form a basis of preference, a motive for predilection; which, confirmed by habit, and strengthened by the reciprocal exchange of gratifying attentions and kind offices, will at length ripen into friendship. A mind habitually tender, easily melts into softness, and exchanges the sentiments of esteem for those of specific attachment and endearment. What is friendship in virtuous minds but⁵ the concentration of benevolent emotions, heightened by respect, and increased by exercise on one or more objects? Friendship is not a state of feeling, whose elements are specifically different

¹ § 73, R. 1, 1.

² § 187.

³ § 112.

⁴ § 177.

⁵ § 259, R. 3.

⁶ § 179, R. 2.

from those which compose every other. The emotions we feel towards a friend, are the same in kind with those we experience on other occasions; but they are more complex and more exalted. It is the general sensibility to kind and social affections, more immediately directed to one or more individuals, and in consequence of its particular direction giving birth to an order of feeling more vivid and intense than usual, which constitutes friendship. Hence we perceive the impropriety of making¹ it the subject of legislation. It is the duty of every man to cultivate the dispositions which lead to friendship, the love of his species, admiration of virtue, regard to the feelings of others, gratitude, humility, along with the most inflexible adherence to probity and truth. Wherever these exist, friendship will be the natural result; but it will result as a felicity rather than as a duty; and is to be placed among the rewards of virtue rather than its obligations. Happiness is not to be prescribed, but to be enjoyed; and such is the benevolent arrangement of Divine Providence, that whenever there is a moral preparation for it, it follows of course; and such are the pleasures and advantages derived from virtuous friendship. Its duties, supposing it to be formed, are deducible, with sufficient certainty and precision, from the light of nature and the precepts of Scripture, and none more sacred; but in the act of forming it, the mind disdains the fetters of prescriptions, and is left to be determined by the impulse of feeling and the operation of events.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

We the people² of the United States,³ in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, ensure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do⁴ ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

Sect. 1. All legislative powers herein⁵ granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate² and House² of Representatives.

Sect. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed⁶ of

¹ § 40.

² § 39.

³ § 36.

⁴ § 152, R. 2.

⁵ § 177, R. 3.

⁶ § 125, and R. 8.

members chosen every second year, by the people of the several States; and the Electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

No person shall be a Representative, who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years¹ a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States, which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such a manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand; but each State shall have at least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers, and shall have sole power of impeachment.

Sect. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof², for six years, and each Senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year; so that³ one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature

¹ § 236.

² § 177, R. 8.

³ § 187, R. 1.

of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments, until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies. No person shall be a Senator, who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation.

When the President of the United States is tried, the chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted, without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

Judgment, in cases of impeachment, shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment according to law.

Sect. 4. The times, places and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may, at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to¹ the places of choosing Senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meetings shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Sect. 5. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members; and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such a manner and under such penalties as each House may provide.

Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, pun-

¹ § 179.

ish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas¹ and nays¹ of the members of either House, on any question, shall at the desire of one fifth² of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

Sect. 6. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrests during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to or returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during³ the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof⁴ shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

Sect. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but⁵ the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as⁶ on other bills.

Every⁷ bill, which shall have passed⁸ the House of Representatives and Senate, shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if⁹ he approve, he shall sign it; but, if not, shall return it, with his objections, to that¹⁰ House in which it shall have originated, who¹¹ shall enter the objections at large on its journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such¹² reconsideration, two thirds¹³ of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together¹⁴ with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be

¹ § 265, R. 2.⁵ § 184.⁹ § 185.¹³ § 54, R. 19.² § 235, R. 3.⁶ § 177.¹⁰ § 74.¹⁴ § 179, R. 2.³ § 179, R. 9.⁷ § 75.¹¹ § 238, R. 21.⁴ § 177, R. 3.⁸ § 145.¹² § 76, and R. 2.

reconsidered, and, if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases, the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas¹ and nays,¹ and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays² excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which³ case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary, (except on a question of adjournment,) shall be presented to the President of the United⁴ States; and, before the same⁵ shall take effect, shall be approved, or, being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in case of a bill.

Sect. 8. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; to pay the debts of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;—to borrow money on the credit of the United States;—to regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;—to establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;—to coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and to fix the standard of weights and measures;—to provide for the punishment of counterfeiting⁶ the securities and current coin of the United States;—to establish post offices and post roads;—to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;—to constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;—to define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations;—to declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning⁷ captures on land and water;—to raise and support armies; but⁸ no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer

¹ § 265, R. 2.

² § 232.

³ § 103, R. 3.

⁴ § 36, R. 1. & § 42.

⁵ § 110, R. 11.

⁶ § 247, R. 2, & 3.

⁷ § 179.

⁸ § 184.

term than two years;¹—to provide and maintain a navy ;—to make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces ;—to provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions ;—to provide for organizing, arming and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed² in the service of the United States, reserving to the States, respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia, according³ to the discipline prescribed by Congress ;—to exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever,⁴ over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as⁵ may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings ;—and to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or office thereof.

Sect. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing, shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight ; but a tax or duty may be imposed on importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended,⁶ unless⁷ when, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or *ex post facto*⁸ law shall be passed.

No capitation, or other direct tax, shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another ; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

¹ § 231, R. 3.

² § 140, R. 4.

³ § 179, R. 4.

⁴ § 106, R. 11.

⁵ § 104, R. 6.

⁶ § 152, R. 3.

⁷ § 185.

⁸ § 77.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but¹ in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person, holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince or foreign state.

Sect. 10. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but² gold and silver coin a tender, in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such immediate danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

Sect. 1. The executive authority shall be vested in a PRESIDENT of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and together with³ the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of Electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one, at least, shall not be an

¹ § 185.

² § 179, R. 2.

³ § 179, R. 4.

inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. And the President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and the House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such a number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot, one of them for President; and if no such person have a majority, then, from the five highest on the list, the said House shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the Electors, shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them, by ballot, the Vice President.

The Congress may¹ determine the time of choosing the Electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President; and the Congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected; and he shall not receive within that period, any other emoluments from the United States, or any of them.

¹ § 152, R. 5.

Before he enter upon the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation :

“I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States.”

Sect. 2. The President shall be commander in chief of the army and the navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States when called into the actual service of the United States. He may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and, by and with the consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Sect. 3. He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either¹ of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors, and other public ministers; shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and he shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Sect. 4. The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

¹ § 114, R. 4.

ARTICLE III.

Sect. 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as Congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the Supreme and Inferior Courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior; and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Sect. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States, between a State and citizens of another State, between citizens of different States, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury, and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Sect. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason; but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

Sect. 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe, the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Sect. 2. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony or other crime, who shall flee from justice and be found in another State, shall on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor; but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

Sect. 3. New States may be admitted by the Congress into the Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State, nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned, as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Sect. 4. The United States shall guaranty to every State in this Union a republican form of government; and shall protect each of them from invasion; and, on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amend-

ments, which in either case, shall be valid, to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by Congress ; provided, that no amendment, which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article ; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States, which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the land ; and the judges, in every State, shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution ; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President,*

And Deputy from Virginia.

<i>New Hampshire</i> ,	{ JOHN LANGDON, NICHOLAS GILMAN.
<i>Massachusetts</i> ,	{ NATHANIEL GORHAM, RUFUS KING.
<i>Connecticut</i> ,	{ WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON, ROGER SHERMAN.
<i>New York</i> ,	ALEXANDER HAMILTON.
<i>New Jersey</i> ,	{ WILLIAM LIVINGSTON, DAVID BREARLY, WILLIAM PATTERSON, JONATHAN DAYTON.
<i>Pennsylvania</i> ,	{ BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, THOMAS MIFFLIN, ROBERT MORRIS, GEORGE CLYMER, THOMAS FITZSIMONS, JARED INGERSOL, JAMES WILSON, GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.
<i>Delaware</i> ,	{ GEORGE REED, GUNNING BEDFORD, JR. JOHN DICKENSON, RICHARD BASSET, JACOB BROOM.
<i>Maryland</i> ,	{ JAMES M'HENRY, DANIEL OF ST. TH: JENIFER, DANIEL CARROL.
<i>Virginia</i> ,	{ JOHN BLAIR, JAMES MADISON, JR.
<i>North Carolina</i> , , . . .	{ WILLIAM BLOUNT, RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT, HUGH WILLIAMSON.
<i>South Carolina</i> , , . . .	{ JOHN RUTLEDGE, CHARLES C. PINCKNEY, CHARLES PINCKNEY, PIERCE BUTLER.
<i>Georgia</i> ,	{ WILLIAM FEW, ABRAHAM BALDWIN.

ATTEST,

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary*.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.

A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war, but in a manner to be perscribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service, in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right

to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and District wherein the crime shall have been committed, which District shall have been previously ascertained by law; and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; and to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE VII.

In suits at common law, when the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved; and no fact, tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of common law.

ARTICLE VIII.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE XII.

The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as

President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and distinct lists of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each; which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then, from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President.

The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such a number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then, from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President, shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

Tired nature's sweet restorer, balmy sleep!¹
He, like the world,² his ready visit pays,
Where fortune smiles; the wretched he forsakes.
Swift on his downy pinion flies from wo,

¹ § 234, R. 1.

² § 258, R. 4.

And lights on lids unsullied with a tear.
 From short (as usual) and disturbed repose
 I wake; how happy they who wake no more!
 Yet that¹ were vain if dreams infest the grave,
 I wake, emerging from a sea of dreams
 Tumultuous, when my wrecked desponding thought
 From wave to wave of fancied misery
 At random drove, her helm of reason lost.
 Though now restored 'tis only change of pain
 (A bitter change)² severer for severe;
 The day too short for my distress; and night,
 Ev'n in the zenith of her dark domain
 Is sunshine to the color of my fate.
 Night, sable goddess! from her ebon throne,
 In rayless majesty now stretches forth
 Her leaden sceptre o'er a slumbering world.
 Silence how dread! and darkness how profound!
 Nor³ eye nor listening ear an object finds.
 Creation sleeps. 'Tis as the general pulse
 Of life stood still, and nature made a pause;
 An awful pause! prophetic of her end,
 And let her prophecy be soon fulfilled;
 Fate drop the curtain; I can loose no more.
 Silence and darkness! solemn sisters! twins
 From ancient night, who nurse the tender thought
 To reason and on reason build resolve,
 That column of true majesty in man,
 Assist me; I will thank you in the grave;
 The grave, your kingdom, there this frame shall fall
 A victim sacred to your dreary shrine.
 But what are ye?—
 Thou who didst put to flight
 Primeval silence when the morning stars
 Exulting shouted o'er the rising ball;
 O thou, whose word from solid darkness struck
 That spark, the sun, strike wisdom from my soul.
 My soul which flies to thee, here trust⁴ her treasure,
 As misers to their gold while others rest,
 Through this opaque of nature and of soul
 This double night, transmit one pitying ray

¹ § 238, R. 5.² § 234, R. 3.³ § 183, R. 2.⁴ § 134.

To lighten and to cheer, O lead my mind
 (A mind¹ that fain would wander from its woe,)
 Lead it through various scenes of life and death,
 And from each scene the noblest truth inspire
 Nor less inspire my conduct than my song;
 Teach my best reason,² reason; my best will
 Teach rectitude;² and fix my firm resolve
 Wisdom to wed, and pay her long arrear;
 Nor let the phial of thy vengeance, poured
 On this devoted head be poured in vain.
 The bell strikes one. We take no note of time
 But from its loss: to give³ it then a tongue
 Is wise in man. As if, an angel spoke,
 I hear the solemn sound. If heard aright,
 It is the knell of my departed hours.
 Where are they? With the years beyond the flood.

Eve lamenting the loss of Paradise.

O unexpected stroke,⁴ worse than of death!
 Must I thus leave thee Paradise?⁴ thus leave
 Thee native soil,⁴ these happy walks and shades
 Fit haunt of Gods? where I had hoped to spend
 Quiet, though sad, the respite of that day
 That must⁵ be mortal to us both. O flowers⁴
 That never will in other climate grow
 My early visitation and my last
 At even which I bred up with tender hand,
 From the first opening bud, and gave ye⁶ names,
 Who now shall rear you to the sun, or rank
 Your tribes, and water from the ambrosial fount?
 Thee lastly, nuptial bower, by me adorn'd
 With what to sight or smell was sweet, from thee
 How shall I part, and whither wander down
 Into a lower world; to this obscure⁷
 And wild? how shall we breathe in other air
 Less pure, accustom'd to immortal fruits?

Soliloquy of Hamlet's Uncle.

Oh! my offence is rank, it smells to heaven;

¹ § 134.

² § 253.

³ § 232.

⁴ § 233.

⁵ § 152, R. 7.

⁶ § 116, R. 4.

⁷ § 235, R. 2.

It hath the primal eldest¹ curse upon't
 A brother's murder!² Pray I cannot
 Though inclination be as sharp as 'twill,
 My stronger guilt defeats my strong intent:
 And like a man to double business bound
 I stand in pause what I shall first begin
 And both neglect. What if this cursed hand
 Were thicker than itself³ with brother's blood;
 Is there not rain enough in the sweet heavens
 To wash it white as snow?³ Whereunto serves mercy,
 But⁴ to confront⁵ the visage of offence!
 But what's in prayer, but⁴ this two-fold force,⁶
 To be forestalled,⁵ ere we come to fall,
 Or pardon'd being down?—Then I'll look up;
 My fault is past.—But oh, what form of prayer
 Can serve my turn? "Forgive me my foul murder!"
 That cannot be; since I am still possess'd
 Of those effects⁶ for which I did the murder,
 My crown, mine own ambition, and my queen.
 May one be pardon'd, and retain the offence?
 In the corrupted currents of this world,
 Offence's gilded hand may shove by justice;
 And oft 'tis seen, the wicked prize itself
 Buys out the law: but 'tis not so above;
 There, is no shuffling; there, the action lies
 In his⁷ true nature; and we ourselves compell'd,
 Even to the teeth and forehead of our faults,
 To give in evidence.—What then?—what rests?
 Try what repentance can: what can it not?
 Yet what can it, when one cannot repent?
 O wretched state! oh bosom, black as death!
 Oh limed soul; that, struggling to be free,
 Art more engag'd! Help, angels! make assay!
 Bow, stubborn knees; and heart, with strings of steel,
 Be soft as sinews of the new-born babe!
 All may be well.

Last night⁸ I was at Mrs. Boscawen's, where there was a

¹ § 235.

² § 449.

³ § 242, R. 6.

⁴ § 179, R. 2.

⁵ § 262.

⁶ § 234, R. 8.

⁷ § 238, R. 9.

⁸ § 250.

very splendid assembly. Lord¹ and Lady¹ Clifford, Mrs. Bouverie, the Misses² Middleton and Beaufort, and the Miss³ Walthams.

To die⁴ they say is noble—as a soldier—
 But with such guides to point th' unerring road
 Such able guides, such arms and discipline
 As I have had, my soul would sorely feel
 The dreadful pang which keen reflections give,
 Should she in death's dark porch, while life was ebbing
 Receive⁵ the judgment, and this vile reproach,
 "Long hast thou wander'd in a stranger's land
 A stranger to thyself and to thy God;"

So judge thou still, presumptuous, till the wrath,
 Which thou incur'st by flying, meet thy flight
 Sev'n-fold, and scourge that wisdom back to hell,
 Which taught thee yet no better that no pain
 Can equal anger infinite provoked.
 But wherefore thou alone? wherefore with thee
 Came not all hell broke loose? Is pain to them
 Less pain, less to be fled? or thou than they
 Less hardy to endure? Courageous chief!
 The first in flight from pain!—hadst thou alleg'd
 To thy deserted host this cause of flight
 Thou surely hadst not come sole fugitive.

To whom the warrior angel soon reply'd:
 To say, and straight unsay, pretending first
 Wise to fly pain, professing next the spy,
 Argues no leader, but a liar, trac'd,
 Satan!—and couldst thou faithful add? O name⁶
 O sacred name⁶ of faithfulness profan'd!
 Faithful to whom? to thy rebellious crew?
 Army of fiends!—fit body⁶ to fit head!
 Was this your discipline and faith engag'd,
 Your military obedience, to dissolve
 Allegiance to th' acknowledg'd Power supreme?
 And thou sly hypocrite,⁶ who now wouldst seem
 Patron of liberty, who more than thou

¹ § 89, R. 8.³ § 51, R. 23.⁵ § 140, R. 10.² § 54, R. 22.⁴ § 262.⁶ § 233.

Once fawn'd and cring'd, and servilely adored
 Heav'n's awful monarch? wherefore but in hope
 To dispossess him, and thyself to reign;
 But mark what I areed thee now; avaunt!¹
 Fly thither whence thou fled'st; if, from this hour
 Within these hallow'd limits thou appear
 Back to th' infernal pit I drag thee chain'd
 And seal thee so, as henceforth not to scorn
 The facile gates of hell too slightly barr'd.—*Milton.*

Uzziel! half these draw off and coast the south
 With strictest watch; these other wheel the north.—
 Ithuriel and Zephon! with winged speed
 Search through this garden, leave unsearched no nook,
 This evening from the sun's decline arriv'd
 Who tell of some infernal spirit seen
 Hitherward bent;—
 Such when ye find, seize fast, and hither bring.—*Milton.*

To be,² or not to be?—that's the question.—
 Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer²
 The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune,
 Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,
 And by opposing, end them?—To die²—to sleep²—
 No more, and by a sleep to say we end²
 The heart-ache and the thousand natural shocks
 That flesh is heir to?—'tis³ a consummation
 Devoutly to be wish'd. To die;²—to sleep;²—
 To sleep;² perchance to dream;²—Ay, there's the rub;
 For in that sleep of death what dreams may come,
 When we have shuffled off this mortal coil
 Must give us pause. There's the respect
 That makes calamity of so long life;
 For who⁴ would bear the whip and scorns of time,
 The oppressor's wrong, the proud man's contumely,
 The pangs of despised love, the law's delay,
 The insolence of office and the spurns
 That patient merit of the unworthy takes;
 When he himself might his quietus make
 With a bare bodkin? who⁴ would fardels bear

¹ § 170.² § 260, R. 3.³ § 238, R. 4.⁴ § 93.

To groan and sweat under a weary life?
 But that¹ the dread of something after death,
 That undiscovered country from whose bourne
 No traveller returns, puzzles the will;
 And makes us rather bear those ills we have,
 Than fly to others that we know not of;²
 Thus conscience does make cowards of us all,—
 And thus the native hue of resolution
 Is sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought;
 And enterprises of great pith and moment
 With this regard their currents turn awry
 And lose the name of action.—*Shakspeare.*

To-morrow,³ didst⁴ thou⁵ say?
 Methought⁶ I heard Horatio say⁷ to-morrow.
 Go⁸ to⁹ I will not hear of it¹⁰—to-morrow.
 'Tis a sharper, who stakes his penury
 Against thy plenty—who takes the ready cash
 And pays thee nought but wishes, hopes, and promises,
 The currency¹¹ of idiots—injurious bankrupt,
 That gulls the easy creditor!—to-morrow!
 It is a period no where to be found
 In all the hoary registers¹¹ of time
 Unless perchance in the fool's calendar.
 Wisdom¹² disclaims the word, nor holds society
 With those who own it. No, my Horatio,
 'Tis fancy's¹² child, and folly¹² is its father,
 Wrought of such stuff as dreams are, and as baseless
 As the fantastic visions of the evening.
 But soft, my friend—arrest the present moment
 For be assured, they all are arrant tell-tales;
 And though their flight be silent and their path
 Trackless as the winged couriers of the air,
 They post to heaven and there record thy folly
 Because, though stationed on the important watch
 Thou, like¹³ a sleeping, faithless sentinel
 Didst let them pass unnoticed, unimprov'd,

1 § 185, R. 1.

2 § 258, R. 7.

3 § 173. 3.

4 § 147, R. 10.

5 § 147, R. 8.

6 § 231, R. 5.

7 § 261.

8 § 179, R. 15.

9 § 277, Rule I.

10 § 277.

11 § 499. 1.

12 § 499. 8.

13 § 499. 2.

And know, for that¹ thou slumb'rest² on the guard,
 Thou shalt be made to answer at the bar
 For every fugitive ; and when thou thus
 Shalt stand impleaded at the high-tribunal
 Of hood-wink'd justice,³ who shall tell thy audit ?

Cotton.

At midnight (when mankind is wrapt in peace
 And worldly fancy feeds⁴ on golden⁴ dreams,)
 To give more dread to man's most dreadful hour ;
 At midnight, 'tis presumed this pomp will burst
 From tenfold darkness ; sudden as the spark
 From smitten steel ; from nitrous grain, the blaze.
 Man starting from his couch, shall sleep no more.
 The day is broke, which never more shall close.
 Above,⁴ around,⁴ beneath,⁴ amazement all,
 Terror⁵ and glory⁵ joined in their extremes ;
 Our God⁶ in grandeur, and our world⁶ on fire.
 All ⁶nature³ struggling in the pangs of death.
 Dost thou not hear her ? Dost⁷ thou not deplore
 The strong convulsions, and her final groan ?
 Where are we now ? Ah me ! the ground is gone⁸
 On which we stood, Lorenzo. While thou mayst,
 Provide more firm support or sink forever.
 Where ? How ? From whence ?⁹ Vain hope ! It is too late !
 Where, where,¹⁰ for shelter shall the guilty fly,
 When consternation turns the good man pale.—*Young.*

Having finished an arduous task, and the day being spent,
 we enjoy the luxury of a leisure evening ; and, to acknowledge¹¹
 the fact, we are happy to conclude our labors.

One of the effects of envy, in respect to the object of it, is a
 busy, curious inquiry or prying into all the concerns of the per-
 son envied or maligned ; and this, no doubt, only as a step to
 those farther mischiefs, which envy assuredly aims at. For
 no man inquires into another's concerns, or makes it his busi-

¹ § 186, R. 2.

² § 147, R. 10.

³ § 499, 1.

⁴ § 499, 8.

⁵ § 179, R. 3.

⁶ § 232, R. 5.

⁷ § 147, R. 10.

⁸ § 127, R. 2.

⁹ § 265, R. 1.

¹⁰ § 265, R. 11.

¹¹ § 263.

ness to acquaint himself with his privacies, but with a design to do him some shrewd turn or other. Such an eye is never idle, but always looking about to see where a man lies open to a blow. It is, withal, an indefatigable teller and hearer of base stories. It is this blessed quality, forsooth, that so insinuates into families, that puts them upon hiring servants to betray their masters, and inveigling one friend, if possibly they can, to supplant another; it is this that listens at doors and windows, that catches at every breath or whisper that is stirring, etc.

Detraction. We have already seen the first effort made by it, by an insidious diving into his (the envied person's) most secret affairs, and the next to this always works out at the mouth; so that¹ if a man cannot overbear his neighbor by downright violence of action, he will attempt it at least by vilifying expressions, and that there may not want art, as well as malice, to carry on the attack more sure and home. Has a man done bravely, and got himself a reputation too great to be borne down by any base and direct aspersions? Why then² envy will seemingly subscribe to the general vogue in most things, but then it will be sure to come over him again with a sly oblique stroke in some derogating [but]³ or other, and so slide in some scurvy exception, which shall effectually stain all his other virtues.—*South.*

And here it comes in one's way, to take notice of a manifest error, or mistake, in the author now cited, unless perhaps he has incautiously expressed himself, so as⁴ to be misunderstood; namely, "that it is malice only and not goodness, which can make us afraid." Whereas, in reality, goodness is the natural and just object of the greatest fear to an ill man. Malice may be appeased or satiated; humor may change; but goodness is a fixed, steady, immovable principle of action. If either of the former holds the sword of justice, there is plainly ground for the greatest crimes to hope for impunity.

¹ § 187, R. 2.² § 187.³ § 264, R. 6.⁴ § 177.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

§ 270. Prosody teaches the rules of *Punctuation*, *Utterance*, *Figures* and *Versification*.

PUNCTUATION.

§ 271. “Punctuation is dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, for the purpose of marking the different pauses which the sense and a correct pronunciation require.

REMARK. *Punctuation* is a modern art. The ancients were entirely unacquainted with the use of our commas, colons, etc.; and wrote not only without any distinction of members and periods, but also without distinction of words; which custom continued till the year 360 before Christ. How the ancients read their works, written in this manner, it is not easy to conceive. After the practice of joining words together had ceased, notes of distinction were placed at the end of every word. This practice, with some variation, continued a considerable time.

As it appears that the present usage of stops did not take place, whilst manuscripts and monumental inscriptions were the only known methods of conveying knowledge, we must conclude that it was introduced with the art of printing. The introduction was, however, gradual; all the points did not appear at once. The colon, semicolon and note of admiration, were produced some time after the others. The whole set, as they are now used, came to be established, when learning and refinement had made considerable progress.”—*Murray's Gram.* p. 266.

§ 272. The principal marks used in punctuation are the following; as,

1. The Comma [,] which denotes the shortest pause.
2. The Semicolon [;] which denotes a pause double that of a comma.
3. The Colon [:] which denotes a pause double that of a semicolon.

4. The Period [.] which denotes a pause double that of a colon.

5. The time denoted by the other marks, the Point of Interrogation [?] and of Exclamation [!], the Dash [—] and the Parenthesis [()], varies according to the structure of the sentence, and their place in it. The time denoted by them may be equal to that of any of the preceding signs.

COMMA.

§ 273. The *comma* generally separates those parts of a sentence which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a slight pause between them.

RULE I.

A short simple sentence is not generally separated by the comma; as, "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom." "God rules over all."

REMARK. When the nominative in a long sentence is followed by two or more inseparable qualifying terms, the comma should be put before the verbs; as, "The good taste of the present age, has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English language."

False Punctuation.

The intermixture of evil, in human society, serves to exercise the suffering graces, and virtues of the good. The friend of order, has made half his way to virtue. The tear of repentance, brings its own relief. All finery, is a sign, of littleness. Slovenliness, and indelicacy of character, commonly go hand in hand.

RULE II.

The members of a compound sentence, whether completely or partially expressed, should generally be separated by the comma; as, "When our vices leave us, we flatter ourselves, we leave them." "James, when he saw his brother, ran and embraced him." "Such events have occurred, and will again." "As thy days, so shall thy strength be."

REM. 1. When a member of a compound sentence is contained in another member, it is separated by the comma; as, "Very often, while we are complaining of the vanity and the evils of human life, we make that vanity and increase those evils."

REM. 2. When verbs of the same construction are closely connected by conjunctions, or connective adverbs, the members of the compound sentence are not separated by commas; as, "Learning enlarges and enriches the mind." "He is in fault *as well as I*." "John learns faster *than* his brother." "I know not whether he has left or not."

REM. 3. When a relative pronoun restricted in its meaning, immediately follows its antecedent, the members are not separated by a comma; as, "The things *which* are seen are temporal, but the things *which* are not seen are eternal."

False Punctuation.

Gentleness is in truth the great avenue to mutual enjoyment. The tutor by instruction and discipline lays the foundation of the pupil's future honor. Trials in this stage of being are the lot of man.

RULE III.

Two words of the same construction, closely connected by a conjunction expressed, should not generally be separated by the comma; but if the conjunction is not expressed, they are usually separated; as, "*Falsehood* and *truth* are opposed to each other." "Poetry *pleases* and *instructs*." "*You* and *I* will go." "He is *wise* and *generous*." "The book was revised *carefully* and *critically*." "He spoke *promptly* and *decidedly*."

REMARK. Words of the same construction, having two or more qualifying terms, though connected by a conjunction, are separated by a comma; as, "*Wisdom in planning*, and *efficiency in executing*, are very important in the business of life."

False Punctuation.

Presumption, and obstinacy, blast the prospect of many a youth. We have no reason to complain of the lot of man or of

the world's mutability. John, and James, went to the theatre last evening. Oxygen, and nitrogen, are the components of air.

RULE IV.

When more than two words after the same construction are connected by conjunctions expressed or understood, those should be separated by commas, which are not connected by conjunctions expressed; as, "Un-governed passions are the *storms*, the *tempests* and the *hurricanes* of the soul." "*He, you* and *I* have each much responsibility in this matter." "He acted *wisely, prudently* and *efficiently*."

False Punctuation.

In our health life possessions connections pleasures there are causes of decay imperceptibly working. Discomposed thoughts agitated passions and a ruffled temper poison every pleasure of life. Vicissitudes of good and evil of trials and consolations fill up the life of man. Health and peace a moderate fortune and a few friends sum up all the undoubted articles of temporal felicity.

RULE V

When words are connected in pairs, the pairs only should be separated by commas; as, "*Pride* and *ambition*, *envy* and *malice*, have blighted the most thriving hopes."

False Punctuation.

Justice and truth candor and plainness were the principal characteristics of his speech. Beauty and humor elegance and wit were finely developed in the picture.

RULE VI.

Nouns in apposition, when accompanied by qualifying terms should be separated by a comma; as, "*Lu-ther*, the great *reformer* of the church." "John Tyler, the *President* of the United States, vetoed the Bank Bill, August 16, 1841."

REM. 1. When two nouns in apposition follow the verbs which signify to name or call, to render or constitute, to reckon or esteem; they are not separated by a comma; as, "They made *him President*."

REM. 2. When a proper and common noun are closely joined and have no qualifying terms, they are not separated by a comma; as, "*John the Evangelist*." "*River St. Lawrence*."

REM. 3. When a pronoun is annexed to a noun for the sake of intensity, it is not separated from it by a comma; as, "I myself have done it."

False Punctuation.

The patriarch Joseph is an illustrious example of chastity resignation and filial affection. Content the offspring of virtue dwells both in retirement and in the active scenes of life. Confucius the great Chinese philosopher was example good as well as wise. Hope the balm of life soothes us under every misfortune. You, yourself, are the only one to be blamed. And they crowned him, emperor.

RULE VII.

When a finite verb is understood, a comma is inserted; as, "Homer was the greater genius; Virgil, the better artist."—*Pope*. "From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge."

False Punctuation.

Providence never intended that any state here should be either completely happy or entirely miserable. If the spring put forth no blossoms in summer there will be no beauty and in autumn no fruit. So if youth be trifled away without improvement manhood will be contemptible and old age miserable. As a companion he was severe and satirical; as a friend captious and dangerous; in his domestic sphere jealous and irascible.

RULE VIII.

When the infinitive is separated from its governing word by a sentence or clause, a comma should be inserted before it; as, "He traversed hills and dales, to gratify his taste for scenery."

REM. 1. When the infinitive is absolute, it is separated from the sentence by a comma ; as, "*To conclude*, he amused his audience with a happy combination of wit and sarcasm."

REM. 2. Where the infinitive is used as a verbal noun it is set off by a comma, if it has two or more qualifying terms ; as, "*To see* the sun in all its richness and splendor, is pleasant."

REM. 3. When the verb *to be* is followed by a verb in the infinitive mode, which by transposition, might be made the nominative case to it, the former is generally separated from the latter by a comma ; as, "The first and most obvious remedy against the infection, is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men."

False Punctuation.

The greatest misery that we can endure is to be condemned by our own hearts. The highest enjoyment that Charles ever experienced was to relieve the distressed and to do good. To enjoy present pleasure he sacrificed his future ease and reputation. To prevent further altercation I submitted to the terms proposed. Charles having been deprived of the help of his tutors his studies became totally neglected.

RULE IX.

A comma is often used to denote contrast, antithesis, or strong emphasis ; as, "Prosperity *gains* friends, and adversity *tries* them." "Though deep, yet clear ; though gentle, yet not dull."

False Punctuation.

He who is a stranger to industry may possess but cannot enjoy. It is the province of superiors to direct of inferiors to obey ; of the learned to be instructive of the ignorant to be docile ; of the old to be communicative of the young to be attentive and diligent. An inquisitive and meddling spirit often interrupts the good order and breaks the peace of society.

RULE X.

When participles or adjectives are followed by terms that depend upon them, they are generally separated

from the rest of the sentence by a comma ; as, “ *Approving* the *plan*, the king put it in execution.

REMARK. When they have the import of a dependent clause, or refer to some noun understood, they should be set off by a comma ; as, “ *United*, we stand, *divided*, we fall.” “ Considering all things, it has happened well.”

False Punctuation.

The path of piety and virtue pursued with a firm and constant spirit will assuredly lead to happiness. *What can be said to alarm those of their danger who intoxicated with pleasures become giddy and insolent ; who flattered by the illusions of prosperity make light of every serious admonition which their friends and the changes of the world give them ?

RULE XI.

Adverbs and modifying clauses are usually separated from the context by a comma, when they interrupt the connection of the sentences, or are not placed in immediate connection with the word they qualify ; as, “ He feared want, *hence*, he over-valued riches.” “ *Finally*, I shall only repeat what has been often said justly.”

False Punctuation.

Sometimes timidity and false shame prevent our opposing vicious customs ; frequently expectation and interest impel too strongly to comply. Here every thing is in stir and fluctuation ; there all is serene and orderly. Be assured then that order frugality and economy are the necessary supports of every personal and private virtue.

RULE XII.

When the conjunctions are separated from the principal clauses connected by them, or when they introduce an example, they are set off by a comma ; as, “ They set out early, *and*, before the close of the day, arrived at the destined place.”

False Punctuation.

Gentleness delights above all things to alleviate distress; and if it cannot dry up the falling tear to sooth at least the grieving heart. If from any internal cause a man's peace of mind be disturbed in vain we load him with riches or honors.

RULE. XIII.

Terms of address and words of others repeated, but not introduced as a quotation, are separated by a comma; as, "Wherefore, *sirs*, be of good cheer." "*My son*, hear the counsel of thy father." "Thus shalt thou say to the children of Israel, *I AM hath sent me unto you.*"

False Punctuation.

Continue my dear children to make virtue your principal study. Come then companion of my toils let us take fresh courage persevere and hope to the end. To you my worthy benefactors am I indebted under Providence for all that I enjoy. Canst thou expect thou betrayer of innocence to escape the hand of vengeance?

RULE XIV.

In superscribing letters or packages, a comma should be placed after the name of the person, town and county, and a period after the name of the State; as,

"Mr. Chester Spencer,
Castleton,
Rutland County,
Vermont."

REMARK. In every case a period should be placed after the last term of the superscription, whether it be the name of the person, town, county or State.

RULE XV.

When prepositions are not placed in immediate communication with the terms on which they depend, or

their objects, they are set off by a comma ; as, “ *In* the most of his views, he is correct.” “ Many States were in alliance *with*, and under the protection *of*, Rome.”

False Punctuation.

Good men in this frail imperfect state are often found not only in union with but in opposition to the views of one another.

RULE XVI.

When words are emphatically expressed, they are separated by the comma ; as, “ *Nay, nay, nay ; no, no, no.*” “ *Oh ! happy, happy, happy.*”

SEMICOLON.

§ 274. The *semicolon* is used to divide the clauses of a period which are less closely connected than such as are divided by the comma, and more closely connected than such as are separated by a colon.

RULE I.

General divisions of a compound sentence, each separated more or less by commas, should be distinguished by the semicolon ; as, “ The desire of approbation, when it works according to reason, improves the amiable part of our species in every thing that is laudable ; so, nothing is more destructive to them, when it is governed by vanity and folly.”

False Punctuation.

That darkness of character where we can see no heart those foldings of art through which no native affection is allowed to penetrate present an object unamiable in every season of life but particularly odious in youth. As there is a worldly happiness which God perceives to be no other than disguised misery as there are worldly honors which in his estimation are reproach so there is a worldly wisdom which in his sight is foolishness.

RULE II.

Two or more simple sentences, in each of which, the subject and verb are expressed and dependent by means of a pronoun, may be separated by semicolons ; as, "She hath killed her beasts ; she hath mingled her wine ; she hath also furnished her table."—*Bible*.

False Punctuation.

To give an early preference to honor above gain when they stand in competition to despise every advantage which cannot be attained without dishonest arts to brook no meanness and to stoop to no dissimulation are the indications of a great mind the presages of future eminence and usefulness in life.

RULE III.

The semicolon is placed before *as*, when it introduces an example, and before *for*, when it is used as a conjunction ; as, "Blessed are the merciful ; for they shall obtain mercy."—*Bible*.

False Punctuation.

The nominative case governs the verb as the horse runs. He acted unwisely for the circumstances of the case were evident. He was very unhappy for the misfortune came upon him quite unexpectedly.

RULE IV.

When words in apposition, require a longer pause than a comma, the semicolon may be used ; as, "Verbs have four modes ; the indicative ; the subjunctive ; the imperative, and the infinitive." "Nouns have three genders ; the masculine ; the feminine, and the neuter."

False Punctuation.

There are six tenses the present the imperfect the perfect the pluperfect and the first and second future.

COLON.

§ 275. The *colon* divides those parts of a compound sentence less closely connected than such as are separated by a semicolon, and not generally so dependent as those connected by a period.

RULE I.

The colon is used when the preceding clause is so complete as to admit of a period, but something is added for the purpose of illustration; as, "A brute arrives at a point of perfection which he can never pass: in a few years he has all the endowments he is capable of: and were he to live ten thousand more, would be the same thing he is at present."—*Spectator*.

False Punctuation.

The three great enemies to tranquillity are vice superstition and idleness vice which poisons and disturbs the mind with bad passions superstition which fills it with imaginary terrors idleness which loads it with tediousness and disgust.

RULE II.

When a quotation is introduced which does not depend on a verb or conjunction, a colon is inserted; as, "These were about the last words of an infidel: 'I take a fearful leap in the dark.'"

False Punctuation.

Philip III. king of Spain when he drew near the end of his days seriously reflecting on his past life and greatly affected with the remembrance of his misspent time expressed his deep regret in these terms "Ah! how happy would it have been for me had I spent in retirement these twenty-three years that I have possessed my kingdom." All our conduct towards men should be influenced by this important precept "Do unto others as you would that others should do unto you."

RULE III.

A compound sentence which has been separated by the semicolon, and which requires a greater pause than the semicolon, yet less than a period, may be pointed by a colon ; as,

“ In faith and hope the world will disagree ;
But all mankind's concern is charity :
All must be false that thwarts this one great end ;
And all of God, that bless mankind or mend.”

PERIOD.

§ 276. The period is put after a complete and independent sentence. It is placed at the close of a discourse, chapter, and section.

RULE I.

When a sentence is independent with respect to its meaning and construction, the period should be put at its close ; as, “ Fear God.” “ Honor the king.” “ Have charity towards all men.”

False Punctuation.

The resources of virtue remain entire when the days of trouble come with us in sickness as in health in poverty as in the midst of riches in our dark and solitary hours no less than when surrounded with friends and cheerful society the mind of a good man is a kingdom to him and he can always enjoy it.

RULE II.

The period is often placed at the close of a sentence, which has a general connexion, expressed by a pronoun, conjunction or adverb ; as, “ He who lifts himself up to the observation and notice of the world, is, of all men, the least likely to avoid censure. For he draws upon himself a thousand eyes, that will narrowly inspect him in every part.”

False Punctuation.

Recreations, though they may be of an innocent nature require steady government to keep them under control or within a due and limited province but such as are of an irregular and vicious kind are not to be governed but to be banished from every well regulated mind.

RULE III.

The period is placed after initials ; as, *M. T. C.* for *Marcus Tullius Cicero.* *A. D. Anno Domini.* And also after abbreviations ; as, *Croc. Anglic.* for *Crocus Anglicanus.* *Sec.* for *secretary.*

False Punctuation.

Constantine the great was advanced to the sole dominion of the Roman world A D 325 and soon after openly professed the christian faith. The last edition of that valuable work was carefully compared with the original M S. The general P O is in a sad condition.

DASH.

§ 277. The *dash* denotes an emphatic or abrupt pause of indefinite length.

RULE. I.

The dash is used when there is an unexpected turn of sentiment ; as,

“ Here lies the great—false marble where ?
Nothing but sordid dust lies here.”—*Young.*

“ If thou art he—but how fallen !”

False Punctuation.

“ I’ll live to-morrow” will a wise man say
To-morrow is too late then live to-day.”

Beauty and Strength combined with Virtue and Piety how lovely in the sight of men how pleasing because with every Temptation to deviate they voluntarily walk in the path of duty.

RULE II.

The dash after a stop, requires a longer pause than when it is used alone.

RULE III.

The sense alone can determine the length of the time which should be employed in the use of the dash.

RULE IV.

The dash is sometimes used instead of a parenthesis; as, "Every planet—the Creator has made nothing in vain—is most probably inhabited."

NOTE OF INTERROGATION.

§ 278. The *note of interrogation* denotes a question.

RULE I.

All questions asked directly are followed by the note of interrogation; as, "How long, ye simple ones, will ye love simplicity?"

REMARK. This rule comprehends questions which one may ask himself, as well as those he may ask others; as, "Who adorned the heavens with such exquisite beauty?"

False Punctuation.

Gripos has long been ardently endeavoring to fill his chest and lo it is now full Is he happy and does he use it Does he gratefully think of the Giver of all good Things Does he distribute to the Poor Alas these Interests have no Place in his breast

RULE II.

When a compound sentence contains two or more questions closely united; they may be separated by a comma or semicolon, and a note of interrogation is put after the last one; as, "Who is the king, or what has he done?"

False Punctuation.

What is there in all the pomp of the world the Enjoyments of Luxury the Gratification of Passion comparable to the tranquil delight of a good Conscience

RULE III.

The note of interrogation should not be used when a question is only said to be asked, and where the words are not used as a question; as, "The Cyprians asked me *why I wept.*"

RULE IV.

In all cases in which a question is not put directly, the note of interrogation should not be used; as, "I know not why he should abuse me thus." Such an example is called an indirect question.

NOTE OF EXCLAMATION.

§ 279. The note of exclamation is used to denote strong or sudden emotion of the mind; as,

"Oh! had we both our humble state maintained,
And safe in peace and poverty remained!"

"Hear me, O Lord! for thy kindness is great!"

RULE I.

When an interrogative sentence expresses a strong or vehement emotion, the note of exclamation is put at its close; "Who can fully express the goodness of our Creator!" "How much vanity in the pursuits of men!"

False Punctuation.

On the one Hand are the Divine Approbation and immortal Honor on the other remember and beware are the stings of Conscience and endless infamy

"The bliss of man could pride that blessing find
Is not to act or think beyond mankind"

"Or why so long in life if long can be
Lent Heav'n a parent to the poor and me"

PARENTHESIS.

§ 280. The parenthesis includes a clause or sentence which contains some useful information, and which may be omitted without injury to the grammatical construction ; as,

“ Know then this truth, (enough for me to know,) Virtue alone is happiness below.”

“ And was the ransom paid ? It was ; and paid— (What can extol his bounty more,) for thee.”

REMARK. The clause or sentence included in the parenthesis, should be uttered more rapidly and with a lower tone than the principal sentence.

RULE I.

The parenthesis ends with the same kind of stop which the member has that precedes it, the note of interrogation and exclamation excepted. The point should be included within the parenthesis ; as, “ Know ye not, brethren, (for I speak to them that know the law,) how that the law hath dominion over a man as long as he liveth ? ” “ While they wish to please, (and why should they not wish it,) they disdain dishonorable means.”

False Punctuation.

“ To gain a posthumous reputation is to save four or five letters for what is a name besides from oblivion.” “ He found them asleep again for their eyes were heavy.” “ It was represented by an analogy oh how inadequate which was borrowed from the religion of paganism.

OTHER CHARACTERS.

RULE I.

§ 281. ['] The apostrophe is a comma placed above a word and denotes either the possessive case of nouns, or the elision of one or more letters of a word ; as, “ *A man's property.* ” “ *A woman's ornament.* ” ‘ *Tis,*

for *it is*. 'Twas, for *it was*. *Condemn'd*, for *condemned*. *Thro'*, for *through*. *E'er*, for *ever*.

RULE II.

[^] A caret resembles an inverted v, and shows where a letter, word or sentence should be inserted which has been accidentally omitted; as, "I am delighted
^{this}
with book."
^

RULE III.

[^] The circumflex, like the caret, is an inverted v, and denotes that the vowel over which it is placed, has a broad sound; as, "*Eclât*."

RULE IV.

[-] The *hyphen* is a short dash, and unites the simple parts of a compound word; as, *pre-existence*; *sing-song*. Placed at the end of a line either in writing or printing, it shows that one or more syllables of a word are carried forward to the next line.

RULE V.

[———] or [****] The *ellipsis* is a long dash or a number of stars placed in succession, and denotes the omission of some letters or words; as, The *k*——g, for, the *king*.

RULE VI.

[{ }] The *brace* unites a triplet, or separate terms that have the same common relation.

[\$] The *section* marks the smaller divisions of a book or chapter.

RULE VII.

[¶] The *paragraph* denotes the beginning of a new subject, and is principally used in the bible. A para-

graph should be distinguished by beginning a new line and placing the first word a little before or after the last word in the preceding paragraph.

RULE VIII.

[*] The *star*, [†] the *obelisk*, [‡] the *double dagger*, [||] the *parallel*, and also the letters of the alphabet, or numerical figures, refer to marginal notes.

[☞] The *index* points to some remarkable passage.

RULE IX.

([]) The *crotchets* usually inclose a word or sentence for the purpose of explanation, or for correcting mistakes ; as, “He [the king] is innocent.”

RULE X.

[∙ ∙] The *diæresis* consists of two points placed over the latter of two vowels, and shows that they are not a diphthong.

[¯] The *macron* denotes that the vowel or syllable over which it is placed is long ; as, “A *nāme*.”

[´] The *acute accent* is turned to the left, and denotes that the syllable over which it is placed requires the principal stress in pronunciation ; as, “*ágency, nóble*.” This character is sometimes used as opposed to the grave accent, to denote a short syllable, or the rising inflection.

RULE XI.

[`] The *grave accent* points to the right, and is used in opposition to the *acute*, and denotes a long vowel, or the falling inflection.

RULE XII.

[˘] The *breve* shows that the vowel over which it is placed is short.

RULE XIII.

[“ ”] The *quotation* marks denote words, phrases or sentences, taken from another author. Two inverted commas are placed at the beginning of the word or sentence quoted, and two in the direct position at the close of it. A quotation within a quotation is set off by single commas.

VERSIFICATION.

§ 282. *Versification* teaches the proper method of constructing words into lines of correspondent length, in such a manner as to produce harmony by the regular alternation of syllables differing in quantity.

QUANTITY.

§ 283. The *quantity* of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it.

A *syllable* is either long or short.

A *long syllable* requires double the time occupied in pronouncing a short one.

REMARK. In determining the quantity of syllables, the sound of the vowel or diphthong should not be regarded; but the force of accent placed upon a syllable, requiring that the voice should be continued a longer or shorter time.

RHYME.

§ 284. *Rhyme* is the correspondence of the last syllable in one line to the sound of the last syllable in another.

REMARK. *Blank verse*, is verse without rhyme.

POETICAL FEET.

§ 285. A *poetical foot* is a combination of two or more syllables of a certain quantity.

All feet in poetry consist of either two or three syl-

lables. There are eight different feet used in poetry. Four have two syllables, and four have three.

§ 286. FEET OF TWO SYLLABLES.

Spondee two long ; as, *pāle moōn*.
Trochee a long and a short ; as, *hātefūl*.
Iambus a short and a long ; as, *bētrāy*.
Pyrrhic two short ; as, *ōn thē tall tree*.

§ 287. FEET OF THREE SYLLABLES.

Dactyl . . . a long and two short ; as, *pāssible*.
Anapæst, . two short and one long ; as, *cōntrāvēne*.
Tribrach, . three short ; as, *ināmītāble*.
Amphibrach, a short, a long and a short ; as, *domēstic*.

METRE.

§ 288. “*Metre* is an arrangement of syllables and feet according to certain rules.”

Metre is divided into *Trochaic*, *Iambic*, *Dactylic*, and *Anapæstic*.

VERSE.

§ 289. “*A verse* is a certain number of feet arranged in a regular order and constituting a line in poetry.”

REM. 1. Two verses are called a *distich* ; a half a verse, a *hemistich*.

REM. 2. A verse, with respect to the metres which it contains, may be complete, deficient or redundant.

REM. 3. A verse which is complete is *acatalectic*.

REM. 4. When a verse is wanting, it is called *catalectic*.

REM. 5. When a verse has a redundant syllable, it is called *hypermetre*.

SCANNING.

§ 290. *Scanning* is dividing a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

TROCHAICAL VERSE.

§ 291. In *Trochaic* verse the accent is laid upon the

odd syllable. Single rhyme trochaic omits the final short syllable, that it may end with a long one.

1. *Trochaic of one foot.*

Ring-
Sing-.

2. *Single Rhyme.*

Tumult | cēase,
Sink to | peace.

3. *Trochaic of two feet.*

On the | mountain,
By a | fountain.

4. *Single Rhyme.*

In the | days of | old,
Stories | plainly | told.

5. *Trochaic of three feet.*

When our | hearts are | mourning.

6. *Single Rhyme.*

Restless | mortals toil for nought,
Bliss in | vain from | earth is | sought.

7. *Trochaic of four feet.*

Round us | roars the | tempest | louder.

8. *Single Rhyme.*

Idle, | after dinner, | in his chair,
Sat a farmer | ruddy, | fat and fair.

9. *Trochaic of five feet.*

All that walk on foot or | ride in chariots,
All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

10. *Trochaic of six feet.*

On ä | mountain, stretch'd | beneath a | hoary | willow,
Lay ä | shepherd | swain and | view'd the | rolling billow.

IAMBIC VERSE.

§ 292. In *Iambic* verse the accent should be laid on the even syllables.

1. *Iambic of one foot.*

Höw bright
Thě light.

2. *Iambic of two feet.*

Whät place | is here.
Whät scenës | appëar.

3. *Iambic of three feet.*

In pla|cës far | ör near
Or fa|möus or | öbscure.

4. *Iambic of four feet.*

And may | at last my weary age
Find out | the peaceful hërmitage.

5. *Iambic of five feet.*

Be wise | to-day, | 'tis mad|ness to defer,
Next day | the fatal prec|edent | will plead.

REMARK. This is called heroic verse. In its simplest form it consists of five Iambuses; but by the admission of other feet, as Trochees, Dactyls, Anapæsts, etc. it is capable of many varieties.

6. *Iambic of six feet.*

För thöu | ärt büt | öf düst, | bë humblë and | bë wise.

7. *Iambic of seven feet.*

Thě Lord dëscëndëd fröm äbove, and böw'd thě heavens high.

This was formerly written in one line, but now it is divided into two, the first containing four feet, the second three; as,

Whën äll thy mercies, O my Göd!
My rising soul surveys.

§ 293. DACTYLIC VERSE.

REMARK. This kind of verse is not common. When it is pure Dactylic verse, the accent is laid on the first and the fourth, the seventh and tenth syllables.

1. *Dactylic of one foot.*

Fearfully,
Tearfully.

2. *Dactylic of two feet.*

Free from sa | tiety
Care and anx | iety.

3. *Dactylic of three feet.*

Ever sing | merrily, | merrily.

4. *Dactylic of four feet.*

Boys will an | ticipate, | lavish and | dissipate.

§ 294. ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

REMARK. In this verse the accent is laid on every third syllable. The first foot of Anapæstic verse may be an Iambus.

1. *Anapæstic of one foot.*

Büt in vain
They complain.

2. *Anapæstic of two feet.*

When I look | on my boys
They raise | all my joys.

3. *Anapæstic of three feet.*

O, ye woods | spread your bran | ches apace.

4. *Anapæstic of four feet.*

May I go | ern my pass | ions with ab | solute sway
And grow wis | er and better as life | wears away.

PRONUNCIATION.

§ 295. *Pronunciation* consists in expressing words or sentences by the vocal organs.

Pronunciation comprehends *accent*, *emphasis*, *pause* and *inflection*.

1. *Accent* consists in laying a peculiar stress of voice on a particular letter or syllable in a word to distinguish it from others.

Every word which has more than one syllable, has one of its syllables accented; as, *miserable*.

In a very long word a secondary accent is given to another syllable, for the sake of harmony and distinction; as, *Amplification*.

2. *Emphasis* consists in laying a peculiar stress of voice on one or more words in a sentence to distinguish them from others.

3. *Pause*, in reading or speaking, denotes a cessation of the voice a longer or shorter period according as the sense requires.

4. *Inflections* are peculiar variations of the voice, made in passing from one note into another.

The passage of the voice from a lower to a higher note, is called the rising inflection. The passage of the voice from a higher to a lower note is called the falling inflection.

5. *Tones* are those modulations of the voice which depend very much upon the feelings of the speaker, and the sentiments he expresses. In order to be impressive, they should be natural and adapted to the nature of the subject and the occasion.

FIGURES.

§ 296. *Figures* are intentional deviations from the regular form, construction and application of words. These figures may relate either to *Etymology*, *Syntax* or *Rhetoric*.

FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

§ 297. There are six principal figures of Etymology, *Aphæresis*, *Syncope*, *Apocope*, *Tmesis*, *Diæresis* and *Synæresis*.

1. *Aphæresis* is the taking away a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word; as, "*'tis 'gan*," for "it is began."

2. *Syncope* is the omission of some letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, *groc'ries*, *med'cine*.

3. *Apocope* is the omission of the final letter of a syllable a word ; as, *tho', th'*, for *though* and *the*.

4. *Tmesis* is the insertion of a word between the parts of a compound word ; as, "What *course* soever he may pursue."

5. *Diæresis* shows that two vowels coming together, should not be considered a diphthong ; as, *preëminent*, *coägulate*.

6. A *Synæresis* denotes the contraction of syllables usually separated, into one ; as, *loved*, *lov-ed*.

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

§ 298. There are three figures of Syntax ; *Ellipsis*, *Pleonasm* and *Hyperbaton*.

1. *Ellipsis* is the omission of some word or words in a sentence, which are necessary to complete the construction, but not to express the meaning of the sentence ; as, "The joys and (the) sorrows of life." "What is your name ? (*it is*) John."

2. *Pleonasm* is using a greater number of words than is necessary to express the meaning ; as, "He spake with his *voice*."

3. *Hyperbaton* is a transgression of the common order of words and clauses ; as, "*Whom* do men say that I am ?" "He wanders *earth* around."

REMARK. This figure may be introduced into animated discourse, with much force, elegance and propriety ; but an emphatic repetition of the same idea, in ordinary sentences, should in every case be avoided.

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

§ 299. A rhetorical figure is an intentional deviation from the regular application of words. Figures of this kind are called *tropes*. There are fourteen rhetorical figures, *Metaphor*, *Simile*, *Metonymy*, *Synechdoche*, *Allegory*, *Irony*, *Hyperbole*, *Personification*, *Apostrophe*, *Interrogation*, *Ecphonesis*, *Vision*, *Antithesis*, *Climax*.

1. "A *Metaphor* is the transferring of a word from the object to which it properly belongs, and applying it to another to which that object has some analogy ;" "as, "The *field* smiles." I will be unto thee a *wall* of fire round about, and a *glory* in the midst of her." "Thou art my *rock* and *fortress*."

2. *Simile* or *comparison* denotes that the resemblance between two objects is expressed in form, and extends farther than a metaphor admits; as, "As the mountains are round about Jerusalem, so the Lord is round about his city." "The actions of princes are like those great rivers, the course of which every one beholds, but their springs have been seen but by few."

3. *Metonymy* is substituting the name of one object, for that of another to which it sustains certain relations; as, the cause for the effect, the container for the thing contained, the property for the substance, the sign for the thing signified, and their contraries; as, "They read Milton." The cause put for the effect, "*Gray hairs should be honored.*" "The kettle boils," the container for the thing contained.

4. *Synechdoche* is putting a genus for a species, the whole for a part, a singular noun for a plural, the material for the thing made of it, and their contraries; as, "a fleet of twenty sail." Here sail is put for ships. The waves are often put for the sea.

5. An *allegory* denotes a continued series of metaphors, used to represent and illustrate one subject by another which resembles it; as, "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt. Thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it, and didst cause it to take deep root and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like goodly cedars. She sent out her boughs into the sea, and her branches into the river."—*Bible*. Here the people of Israel are represented under the image of a vine.

6. *Irony* denotes the intentional use of words expressing a meaning contrary to that which the writer or speaker intends to convey, not to deceive, but to give force to expression; as, "Cry aloud: for he is a god: either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is on a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth, and must be waked."—*Bible*. Here the prophet Elijah challenged the priests of Baal to prove the truth of their deity, and addressed them as above in ironic language. "O excellent interpreter of the law! master of antiquity! corrector and mender of our constitution!"—*Cicero for Balbus—deriding his accuser*.

7. *Hyperbole* is magnifying or diminishing a subject beyond the truth; as,

"Me miserable! which way shall I fly
Infinite wrath and infinite despair?
Which way I fly, is hell, myself am hell,

And in the lowest depth, a lower deep
Still threatening to devour me, opens wide,
To which the hell I suffer seems a heaven."

"I saw their chief tall as a rock of ice, his spear as a blasted fir, his shield the rising moon; he sat on the shore like a cloud of mist on the hill!"—*Ossian's description of the leader of an enemy.*

8. *Personification* represents inanimate things as acting and speaking, and dead as alive and present; as, "The earth smiles with plenty." "The ground thirsts for rain." "The mountains skipped like rams, and the little hills like lambs."—*Bible.*

The following is a description of the effects of eating the forbidden fruit,

"Earth trembled from her entrails as again
In pangs, and nature gave a second groan;
Sky lowered, and mutt'ring thunder some sad drops
Wept at completing of the mortal sin."—*Milton.*

9. *Apostrophe* is turning from the regular course into an animated address; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory." "O, death! where is thy sting? O grave! where is thy victory?"—*Bible.*

10. *Interrogation* denotes an earnest question, and generally implies a strong affirmation to the contrary; as, "Hast thou an arm like the Almighty?" "Who by searching can find out God?" "Who can find out the Almighty unto perfection?"—*Bible.*

11. *Ecphrasis* is a pathetic exclamation denoting a strong emotion of the mind; as, "O that my head were waters, and mine eyes a fountain of tears, that I might weep day and night for the slain of the daughter of my people!"—*Bible.* "O liberty! O sound once delightful to every Roman ear!"—*Cicero.*

12. *Vision* is a figure by which the speaker represents the objects of his imagination as if they were actually passing before his eyes; as, "I seem to myself to behold this city, the ornament of the earth, and the capital of all nations, suddenly involved in one conflagration."—*Cicero.*

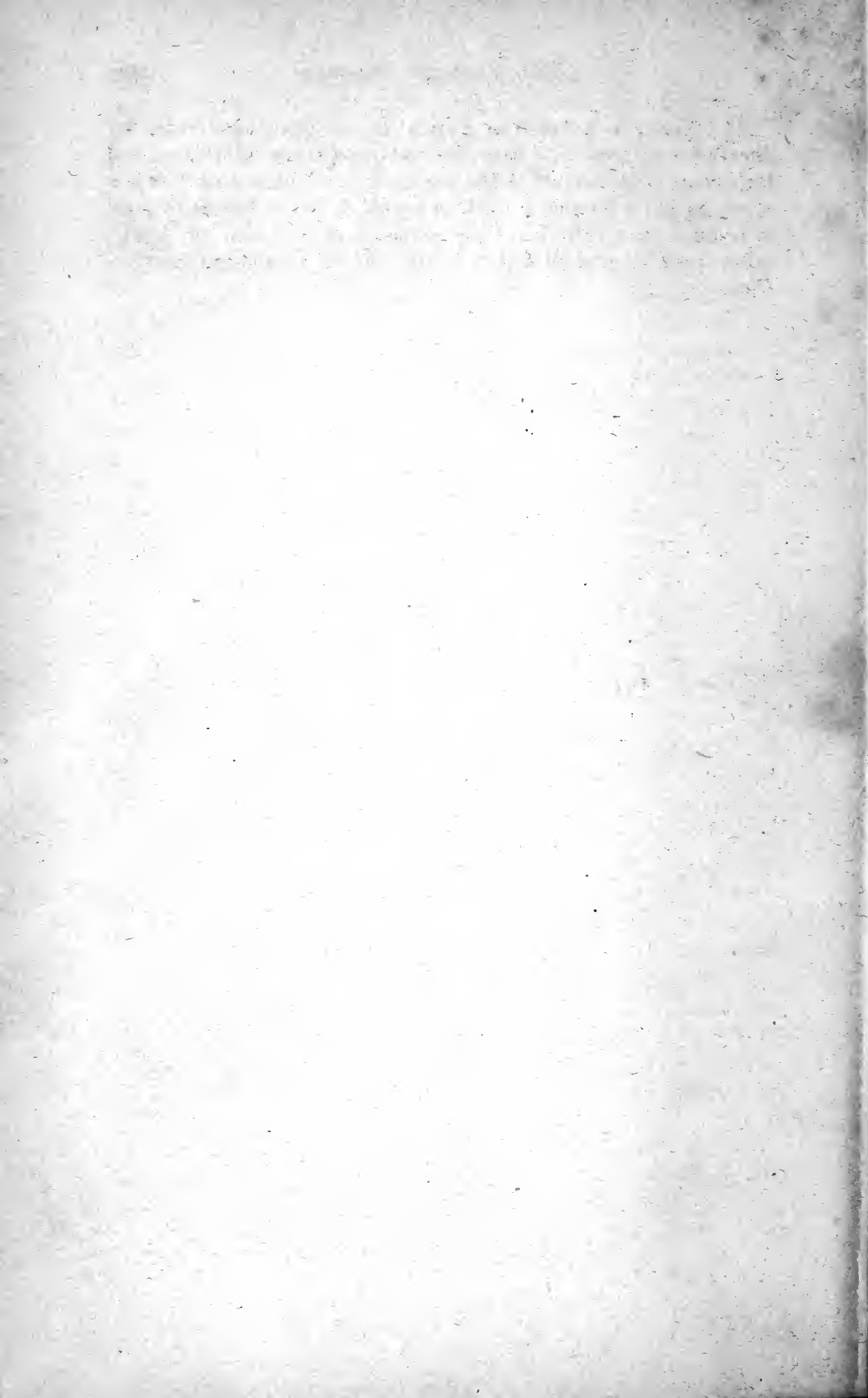
13. *Antithesis* is placing things in opposition, to produce a greater effect by contrast; as,

"Tho' deep, yet clear; tho' gentle, yet not dull."

"If you wish to enrich a person, study not to increase his stores, but to diminish his desires."

14. *Climax* is a figure in which the sentiment increases by successive degrees and becomes more and more interesting and important, or descends to the minutest particulars ; as, “ It is a crime to put a Roman citizen in bonds, it is the height of guilt to scourge him, little less than parricide to put him to death : what name then shall I give to the act of crucifying him.”—*Cicero*.

END.





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